

DYNAMIC HEAT TRANSFER IN
COMPOSITE MINATURE STRUCTURES

by

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SPRINGS TEST FLANGES IN CONCRETE
WELDLAP JOINTS

by

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The inability to measure temperatures in small objects accurately and at all electric potentials during rapid temperature transients points up the need for rapid alternate methods of testing such materials. In this investigation, temperature histories were recorded for specific locations in a simulated thermal history, and the effect of changing the construction configurations and the physical properties of the materials were studied in order to optimize battery life.

The testing apparatus which was developed to simulate the thermal history. These models were tested in the simulation of "well-stirred" elements having the thermal resistance "lumped" at the larger face between adjacent elements. They provided a description of the temperature histories in thermal histories which were in satisfactory

agreement with experience. The testing studies provided considerable insight into brain function processes in these units, and the subjects of changes in configuration and properties of networks. The results of these studies were also very helpful in the development of the new universal digital computer model.

The digital computer model consisted of a system having a core with up to 64 local cell-related sections and an output section where instantaneous gradients existed. The core was surrounded by six stimulus selected layers of learning articles which could be assigned any value of physical properties. The parallel differential equations describing this model were approximated using Euler-differences technique by a system of difference-difference equations which in turn were solved by the Adams-Moulton-Shell numerical integration method. Among the most important findings of this work are:

1. In the learning articles and interrelations studied within binary life is achieved with all-thermionic calculations.
2. If it is necessary to use layers of more than one interrelation selected, within binary life is achieved with as much thermionic as possible referred to the core.
3. Available layers prepared by adding a pure learning with a good one are less efficient than groups arrangements of layers consisting of pure articles.
4. An increase in the minimum heat capacity of the heat generation leads to an increase in the binary life.
5. An increase in the maximum heat of reaction leads to

an increase in battery life provided it is spread over a sufficiently long period of time.

6. Fluctuation of available test power in the insulation leads to substantially increased battery life.

7. An increase in battery size generally results in an increase in battery life because the capacity of the test materials increases more rapidly than the rate of heat losses. Conversely, the smaller the battery the more serious the heat transfer problem.

8. The sphere is the most efficient shape because it has the smallest area for a given volume. The greater the deviation of an actual shape from a sphere the greater the heat transfer problem.

9. The high cut-off temperature imposed by a high-welding electrolyte leads to an optimum size of insulation volume ratio. For the system studied this optimum ratio turned out to be close to that obtained for the standard.

10. The optimum insulation for a high cut-off temperature is not the insulator with the lowest thermal conductivity, i.e., rather, the one with the lowest thermal conductivity and a value of the volumetric heat capacity which is a function of the cut-off temperature.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The construction and operation of thermal batteries was first discussed by Goetzlich [1], who defined them as electrochemical power sources based upon electrolytes of various inorganic salts which operate well and consistently at all storage temperatures. He indicated that for limited performance, an isolated heat generating source (based on chemical reaction using gas, liquid or solid fuels) is required to raise the temperature of the cell above its working point. Plant [2], and later $g\ell$, [3] have presented descriptions of different non-electrochemical systems, such as $H_2/LiCl-KCl-H_2O/H_2O/H_2$ and $H_2/LiCl-KCl/H_2O/H_2$ which perform satisfactorily in thermal batteries.

While [4] presented the following advantages of thermal

batteries:

1. Provide high voltages
2. Large currents may be drawn from them
3. Unlimited storage
4. Operates over a wide range of temperatures extremes
5. No self-heating
6. No ice problems
7. Reliability

He stated that the chief limitation is that they are relatively short lived, the implication being that this involves first loss of heat, the activation time could be decreased essentially indefinitely by adding

some well known examples. Johnson (11), and Hill (12) presented data on heat generating systems which are surface temperatures of about 1000°F in about 1 second. One of these systems would also emit white light and would be made of MgO , Al_2O_3 , SiO_2 , Fe, etc. However other systems have been developed from study of the thermodynamic properties of the reactants and products of reactions.

Probably the classic case of studying a chemical reaction as previous heat is the burning process. Probably the reactants in these reactions are in the form of very fine powder and are chosen so as to be gaseous, or nearly so. These reactions are essentially instantaneous, and they give off a great deal of heat. Temperatures of the order of 4000°K are commonly reached.

The design of thermal battery structures is a challenging complex engineering problem because of the stringent heat transfer characteristics required to construct a useful unit. The chemical composition of the composite which comprises the thermal battery and the details of its construction are subject to accurate classification but enough confidential information is available to permit the heat transfer problem to be defined satisfactorily.

A thermal battery can be thought of as an assembly of three main types of elements:

1. Heat generator, which essentially is anhydrous Germanium heat source;
2. Electrolyte cells, which serve indicated when the

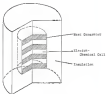
electrolyte, which is solid at ambient temperature, melts as it receives heat given off by the heat generators.

3. Insulation, which serves to decrease the rate of heat loss from the assembly to the surroundings.

In a thermal battery the heat generators and electrolytic cells, which may be shaped in the form of thin circular cylinders, are so arranged in a stack in which each cell is in contact with two generators and vice versa. This configuration serves to be surrounded by the insulation. A schematic diagram of such a cell is shown in Figure 1.

The operation of the battery is initiated when the heat generators are set off. The large quantity of heat given off causes continuously by these generators to be transferred rapidly to the electrochemical cells with the result that the solid electrolyte melts and the cell begins to generate electrical power. The assembly loses heat to the surroundings owing to its high relative temperature, and the electrochemical reaction within the cell proceeds until the electrolyte approaches its freezing point. In this work the elapsed time between the reaching 400°C and cooling back to 400°C is referred to as the life of the battery.

In a basic knowledge study run of the various objectives would be to establish the life of the battery for a given battery volume subject to other manufacturing and operational constraints. Determination of battery life above 400°C was, therefore, made the primary objective of this investigation. The life of a thermal battery may be estimated reasonably well if important parameters can be obtained at the required



NOTE: Section covered
for clarity

Figure 1 Schematic Diagram of Closed Battery

limitations within the history. Although it might appear that the desired thermodynamic relations could be derived either by direct measurement or by classical mathematical methods, further consideration of the problem still leaves inherent limitations in both the experimental and the formal mathematical approaches.

Although thermometers, thermopiles, and similar devices are generally quite adequate temperature measurement instruments for many physical phenomena, there exist other situations, such as that encountered here, where the instrumental response will not be adequate. For example, large differences can arise between the indicated and actual temperatures of an object as a result of transient lags of the sensing device during rapid temperature changes, or as a result of heat losses through the measuring device if the object under study is small, or else failure in the sensing device. Such errors are in general difficult to exclude.

Increasingly the temperature histories at points of interest may be obtained by solving the mathematical model which describes the given physical situation. For the case of instantaneously heat transfer, the mathematical model will consist of one or more partial differential equations. Even if the system is equipped with a temperature measuring device should not be serious, a valid analytical procedure would have a tremendous advantage of producing temperature histories at numerous points simultaneously. However, the experimental approach would subject the system to the disruptive influence of the numerous measuring devices required for direct measurements. Hence the object under study is

relatively small the errors resulting from lost issues through the various measuring instruments might be the most significant cause of lost time thereby reducing the observational measurements.

Another significant advantage of the mathematical model approach to this problem as compared to the experimental approach is that the experimental testing of the battery involves a statistical analysis (including numerous replicates) because of the random variation of the materials making up the battery. In the mathematical model, materials having exact properties are assumed and some valid predictions can be drawn from a much smaller number of trials.

There is another consideration which is very significant from the design standpoint, namely, the mathematical model allows for the possibility of evaluating the performance of a battery constructed of idealized materials. If the results indicate that a significant improvement could be obtained with such materials, attention would be directed towards the development of these materials.

In many cases of practical interest (such as the one under consideration), exact mathematical solutions of partial differential equations are very difficult or impossible to evaluate because materials may not be homogeneous, thermal properties may vary, or the boundary or initial conditions may be complex. However, the availability of electronic computers makes possible the solution of complex mathematical models by various approximation techniques.

In this study, mathematical models of the dynamic heat transfer in thermal batteries were developed with simplifying assumptions which

main data relative to the computer function. In the initial stage of the investigation the working computer was utilized. When the insight gained from the working machine, a more complete mathematical model was developed and programmed for the IBM 709 digital computer.

The investigation had two chief objectives:

1. To provide comparative relations for specific functions within a battery.
2. To study the effect of changing the construction configuration size and properties of the materials required for the construction of the battery so that design qualifications could be made to optimize its performance.

The optimization criterion was defined as the maximum life of the battery. Thus, the configuration yielding the maximum battery life was considered optimum. In addition to this, the effect of chemical materials was studied with the idea that if the inclusion of certain identified material increased the life of the battery significantly, the feasibility of developing such a material would be indicated.

CHAPTER III

THEORY OF HEAT TRANSMISSION

The second law of thermodynamics states that heat energy always flows in the direction of the negative temperature gradient, i.e., from a hot body to a colder one.

There are three distinct methods by which this migration of heat takes place:

1. Conduction, in which the heat passes through the substance of the body itself.

2. Convection, in which heat is transferred by circulating motion of particles of the heated body.

3. Radiation, in which heat is transmitted directly between particles of the body by electromagnetic radiation.

Although the three kinds of heat transmission generally occur together, frequently one or the other often prevails in particular cases. Therefore, separate laws governing each kind of heat transfer have been developed and may be used in such cases. Superposition of these laws is also often possible and used (3).

The basic law of heat conduction is,

$$\frac{Q}{A} = -k \frac{dT}{dx} \quad (11-1)$$

In this and the next two equations, Q , denotes the total rate of heat flow, A is the heat energy flowing through a constant area, k , is called the rate of heat flow, Q , may be considered constant for the time

being. Equation (II-4) relates to steady state transfer in a plane sheet of thickness Δ , with a perfectly insulated edge. The rate from surfaces being held at the temperature difference ΔT . The parameter, h , which may be considered a constant for the time being, is called thermal conductivity.

Equation (II-4) originates from Fick (II), but he is generally called Fourier's equation because Fourier (II) used it as a fundamental equation in his multiple theory of heat.

For heat conduction, the following equation was later recommended by Fourier (III):

$$q = h\Delta T \quad (II-5)$$

Equation (II-5) relates to the heat transfer between a surface and a fluid in contact with it, the temperature difference being ΔT . The factor h is called surface coefficient of heat transfer, film coefficient of heat transfer, or simply coefficient of heat transfer. This expression is often referred to as Fourier's cooling law, but it is really a modification of it. This point will be discussed later in more detail.

For the total radiation, equations of the form

$$q = \sigma T^4 \quad (II-6)$$

have been used since Stefan (II) found this relation and Weinmann (II) proved it theoretically for a perfectly black surface. Equation (II-6) relates to the emission of radiative heat from a surface at the absolute temperature T . The factor σ is a constant, known later as the Stefan-Boltzmann constant, or the constant of total kinship.

equation. The surface net radiative flux, ϵ , may be qualified as the Stefan-Boltzmann law to be applicable.

The basic equation of heat conduction for solid linear changes of temperature is

$$Q = \rho C_p \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} \quad (11-1)$$

where Q is the heat transmission in unit time, in the volume, V , of a surface of density, ρ , and specific heat, C_p , when the temperature increases by ∂T in a time interval ∂t .

From the above fundamental relations a great deal of knowledge has been developed. The application of mathematics provides the solution of heat transfer processes by different means, in different geometrical shapes, and subject to varied initial and boundary specifications. Karlekar and Jaeger [11] have presented a very complete formal mathematical treatment of heat conduction problems. Jakob [7] considered all forms of heat transfer in his work, and provided theoretical or empirical solutions in a great variety of heat transfer problems. Incropera [12] presents a very complete treatment of the heat transfer system from the practical design engineering point of view.

Quantitatively in the field of heat transfer by convection, very physical situations can be described by relations which are amenable to solution by formal mathematical techniques. Other studies [13,14,17] have treated convective motion, mostly via laminar well known or turbulent conditions. However, Jakob [14] considered a convective system having relations between layers.

To most of the formal mathematical relations in heat conduction

provides the assumption of statistical theories and physical properties is usually made. Prakash (1981, and Yang (1982) have studied the effect of these assumptions and have shown that in some situations significant errors may result from their use. The relations of heat conduction problems involving anisotropic heat transfer usually involve initial in series of some which may or may not converge rapidly. Therefore, it is sometimes quite difficult to obtain a numerical answer from the general mathematical solution.

To assist in using the results of formal mathematical treatment more applicable to practical problems Sarup and Malik (1981, Sarup (1982), Sarup and Ishiguro (1983), Sarup (1985, and others (1984,1985,1987) have presented graphs or charts showing temperature versus time or geometrical location for different geometries. Each parameter is plotted individually, $x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\alpha t}}$, various geometric configurations, and geometric shapes are usually analyzed. The geometrical shapes considered are circular or rectangular infinite plates, infinite cylinders, spheres or objects of such shape that heat flow can be considered unidirectional.

It is generally accepted that formal mathematical methods are capable of solving only the simplest situations of geometry and boundary conditions in heat conduction problems. Many practical situations yield a mathematical model which can only be solved by approximation methods. Numerical, graphical and analog techniques are the most common tools for handling complex heat conduction problems. Although these methods are approximations, they can, in principle, be extended to any degree of

distance of approach to the exact solution given by formal mathematical techniques. They only guarantee in the course of effort (time and/or money) expended. In addition, as mentioned before, the formal mathematical

- (c) Such solutions that require considerable effort if a paying numerical answer is desired using in the usual laboratory spirit free of the solution, later, an example will be given of a problem where an approximate approach actually required less effort to yield an answer of a given accuracy than the effort required to achieve the formal mathematical solution to the same degree of accuracy.

Graphical methods for solving heat conduction problems were first developed by Heiler (24) and Wright (25) based on the solution of Fourier differential. Many experiments and extensions of the basic method have been made (26,27). The work of Langrell (28) is of particular significance in this investigation because it treats graphically the action of the freezing boundary in the heat transfer process involving the phase change from liquid to solid. This is probably the mechanism by which the electrochemical cell became supercooled. In general it can be stated that graphical methods are useful only when low accuracy is sufficient in the solution of a problem. If a high degree of accuracy in the solution is required, this procedure becomes prohibitively cumbersome.

It has been known for many years that differential physical phenomena can be described by the time differential method, in such cases they are said to be transient processes. Langrell, Adams and Roberts (29) state in fact from the first is some use of the analogy between

thermal and electrostatic interactions) that solved a problem based on the similarity between a time-dependent field and an electrostatic flow-voltage field of the same geometrical configuration.

Boxton (24) and Fowler (25) developed lumped-parameter, permanent-magnet analog devices whose principal elements were resistors and inductances, and they were able to solve many-body-stress heat transfer problems. The chief weakness of these analog devices is that they are expensive to construct, and are usually capable of simulating only the type of system for which they were specifically designed. Even relatively minor modifications of the original system can be cumbersome and expensive.

The type of analog devices discussed above depend for their operation upon the existence of a direct physical analogy between the analog and the prototype system under study. Such an analogy is recognized by comparing the characteristic equations describing the dynamic or steady behavior of the two systems. An analogy is said to exist if these characteristic equations are identical in form, and the initial and boundary conditions are the same. Such a relationship is possible only if there is a one-to-one correspondence between elements in the analog and in the prototype system. For every element in the original system there must be present in the analog system an element having similar properties, i.e., an element having a similar dynamic time-response relationship. Furthermore, the elements in the analog must be interconnected in the same fashion as the elements in the original system.

The other major class of analog system includes mathematical rather than physical analogs. The behavior of the system under study,

or the problem to be solved is first expressed as a set of algebraic or differential equations. An catalogue of computing codes or libraries with capacity of performing some specific mathematical operations, such as addition, multiplication or integration, is provided, and these codes are implemented as so to generate the solution of the problem (24).

The availability in recent years of high-speed digital computers has suggested the interest in numerical methods based in the solution of finite differences as an efficient tool for the solution of complex heat flow problems. Inoue (25) utilized the relaxation method developed by Sankaranil (26) for the solution of two and three-dimensional steady state heat transfer problems. Although the relaxation technique can be used for unsteady-state problems (27), explicit time derivative procedures, such as the one developed by Sankaranil (26), are generally preferred to relaxation methods because they can be adapted more readily to digital computers.

The explicit finite-difference technique has in general the limitation that it is difficult to evaluate the accuracy of the solution: if the criteria of "stability" and "convergence" are utilized, the accuracy is dependent by the number of iterations used, and it can be improved as the amount of iteration affects (24). The convergence criterion is the requirement that the small solution be approached by the approximate solution as the number of iterations approaches infinity. The stability criterion states that the error introduced into the computation, owing to the limited number of digits which a given

regular run away, such will continue in magnitude in the simulation programs. These criteria have been studied by a number of investigators [21,22,23]. Therefore, for a practical method that is stable and convergent when applied to a system of equations, the Euler-difference technique may yield any degree of accuracy desired. The only restriction is the amount of effort required.

Reiss [24] and Reissler [25] developed explicit difference methods which are computationally stable, usually at the expense of increased computational effort. Recently, et al. [26] utilized the explicit type Euler-difference technique, and solved on a digital computer the problem of finding homogeneous equilibrium toroidal fields [27] and the explicit Euler-difference approach for the solution on a digital computer of the steady-state heat transfer in a compressible fluid system. Recently the physical model is calculated on a simplified version of the thermal behavior which are the subject of this study.

Burns and Hightower [28] developed a model to estimate the performance of toroidal at low column temperatures. It was programmed on a digital computer and it was based on constant surface area toroidal surfaces at the location.

In this investigation, two different mathematical models were developed and solved on an analog computer in order to benefit from the advantages features of the instrument, such as the essentially instantaneous availability of the answer, the continuous display of the results (usually in its magnitude or a position), and the limitation

response of the system to a change in one of the parameters. All of these features make the modeling computer the ideal choice for this study. Later, when mathematical models had been selected from the modeling simulation and when numerical answers were desired, a model was developed to be programmed on the digital computer. The models revealed very interesting aspects of heat transfer phenomena, and provided a good simulation of thermal behavior.

4. Geometrical Considerations in Generalized Spherulites

Some conclusions can be drawn from purely geometrical considerations with respect to the optimum shape of a spherulite having either the properties of surface area or volume. Since the rate of heat transfer is directly proportional to the area and the rate of impurities change is inversely proportional to the volume, it is clear that the smaller the area of a body, the lower the rate at which it will lose heat, all other things being equal. Therefore, a hot body of a given volume will remain hot longer, the smaller the area.

If, for the moment, the geometrical shape of the spherulite is considered to be a right circular spherulite, elementary mathematical considerations show that for a spherulite having radius R and height h , the total area is given by

$$A = \pi R^2 + 2\pi Rh \quad (11-1)$$

while the volume is given by

$$V = \pi R^2 h \quad (11-2)$$

If the volume is considered to be fixed, the area can be expressed by

$$x = 2\pi r^2 + 2\pi r \frac{r}{\sqrt{1-r^2}} \quad (11-8)$$

which can be differentiated with respect to r and equated to zero to give

$$-\frac{dx}{dr} = 4\pi r - \frac{2\pi r^2}{1-r^2} = 0 \quad (11-9)$$

Equation (11-9) may be solved for the value of r which

$$r = 2\pi r^2 \quad (11-10)$$

This would be the value of the volume corresponding to a minimum area, but

$$r = 2\pi r^2 \quad (11-11)$$

hence

$$1 = 2\pi \quad (11-12)$$

Equation (11-12) states that the right circular cylinder having the minimum area per unit volume is one having the height equal to its diameter.

Similarly it can be shown that for the case of rectangular parallelepipeds the volume is given by

$$V = xyz \quad (12-1)$$

while the area is given by

$$A = 2xy + 2xz + 2yz \quad (12-2)$$

If the volume is considered to be fixed the area can be expressed as

$$A = 2xy + \frac{2x^2V}{xy} + \frac{2y^2V}{xy} \quad (12-3)$$

which can be differentiated partially with respect to x and y to give

$$\frac{\partial A}{\partial x} = 2y - \frac{2V}{y} = 0 \quad (12-4)$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2x - \frac{2x}{y} = 0 \quad (11-16)$$

These equations may be solved for x and y , respectively, to give

$$x = r^{1/2} \quad \text{and} \quad y = r^{1/2} \quad (11-17)$$

which results in a value of $x = r^{1/2}$ when substituted into equation (11-11). Hence the orthogonal, perpendicular slices, whereby one is a solution for a given total volume is the cube.

Samuels (44) has shown by the calculus of variations that the sphere is the solid generated by rotation which has the maximum volume for a given mass. The sphere is likewise the solid having the minimum volume for a given mass out of all possible solids, but this is more difficult to demonstrate algebraically. It can be shown specifically that the sphere has a lower ratio of mass to volume for a given volume than the cylinder having equal height and diameter which in turn has a lower ratio than the cube. For a volume of V the radius of the sphere is given by

$$r_s = \left(\frac{3}{4\pi} V \right)^{1/3} \quad (11-18)$$

and the area is given by

$$a_s = 4\pi \left(\frac{3V}{4\pi} \right)^{2/3} \quad (11-19)$$

For the cylinder, the radius is given by

$$r_c = \left(\frac{1}{\pi} V \right)^{1/3} \quad (11-20)$$

and the area

$$a_c = 4\pi \left(\frac{1}{\pi} V \right)^{2/3} \quad (11-21)$$

Hence, for the same volume V , the ratio of the area of the sphere to the

area of the cylinder is

$$\frac{A_c}{A_n} = \left(\frac{D}{d} \right)^{3/2} = 0.832 \quad (29-29)$$

For a tube the value L is given by

$$L = \pi^{1/2} \quad (29-30)$$

and the area

$$A_{cm} = \pi^{3/2} \quad (29-31)$$

Therefore, the ratio of the area of the cylinder to the area of the tube is

$$\frac{A_c}{A_{cm}} = \frac{A_c}{A_n} \left(\frac{A_n}{A_{cm}} \right)^{2/3} = 0.808 \quad (29-32)$$

These considerations indicate that, if it were possible to convert thermal radiation to a spherical shape, this would be the optimum configuration from the heat transfer viewpoint. There are other configurations which make this shape impractical, hence the most cost efficient shape is that of a right circular cylinder having the smallest ratio of the height to diameter.

Figure 3 illustrates the temperature distribution of the outer walls of different homogeneous right circular cylinders having equal volumes and different height to diameter ratios, and having initial temperatures of 100°F everywhere except at the surface where the temperature is assumed to be constant at zero degrees. These curves were calculated from tables presented by Wilson and Ishizuka [14]. The parameter shown on the curve is the height to diameter ratio. The volume of all cylinders is that of the cylinder having a height of 1.0 m (equal to the

diminish². A temperature history for the center point of a sphere having the same values is also shown. For right circular cylinders of constant values, Figure 2 indicates that the rate of cooling decreases drastically when the height to diameter ratio is made less than the sphere. The rate of cooling also increases when the height to diameter ratio is made greater than the sphere but the effect is less than in the former case.

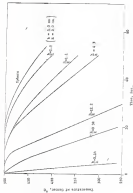


Figure 2. Frequency of light in cylindrical cell.

CHAPTER III

ANALYTICAL CONCEPT MODEL, I

A. Description of the Model

The first model developed to simulate a thermal battery consisted of a cylindrical stack of alternating heat generators and cells surrounded by insulation. Within the central column of generators and cells in a real thermal battery may vary, it was assumed that this core was composed of three cylindrical generators and two cells surrounded by top, bottom and lateral insulations. A schematic diagram of the model is shown in Figure 3.

Consideration of the physical dimensions of the elements in the battery led to some assumptions. The very small relative thickness of the elements compared to other dimensions, such as diameter of the cells, heat generators and top insulations, and height for the lateral insulations, suggests that the major portion of the heat transfer is in radial, rather than a radial, process. This suggests that the temperature variation with element would be uniform radially, hence it was assumed that each element was "well-mixed", i.e., that the temperature was uniform throughout. This assumption is more valid for some elements than for others. For example, the cells would (during the operating life of the battery) of uniform electrolyte, and also internal structural and electrochemical functions may be occurring simultaneously, it appears that the setting of the feet in the electrolyte provides a relatively

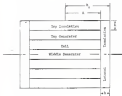


Figure 1. Schematic diagram of factory described by Table 1

well-aligned channel having an approximately constant temperature. There also exists the possibility that some convective currents might be established, but this is doubtful owing to the small thickness of the wall. The definition of the heat generation and dissipation from this structure would be of the same order of magnitude because their thermal properties are acceptable.

The simplified geometry of the model makes necessary the consideration of only the one half of the wall.

The heat generation reduces their surface temperature of about 1700°K (1500°C) to a length of time which is negligible compared to the time of the heat transfer process. Therefore, it was assumed that they reached their maximum temperature instantaneously, and this high temperature exists between the initial diffusion phase of the heat transfer system.

There is a host of examples from (hetero-catalytic) chemical reactions. The experimental data describing this phenomenon are very accurate. It is known that the heat of reaction increases rapidly at the beginning of the operation, reaches a maximum, and then decays-- a triangular shape was assumed for the heat of transformation relationship; both the shape and magnitude of this effect were based on selected portions of experimental investigations [58], and it is the only feature in this study not based on experimental or assumed physical data.

6. Heat Transfer Difficulties

The chief consequence of the assumption of well-aligned elements is the fact that the heat transfer process which occurs under these conditions becomes one of convection rather than conduction. However,

there can be no temperature gradient through any single element, all of the resistance to heat transfer appears "lumped" at the interfaces between elements. Therefore, a parallel heat transfer coefficient can be calculated by appropriately lumping the heat transfer coefficients at the adjacent elements at the interfaces between them (found, of course, as their thermal conductivities and the area path involved by the heat).

The parallel heat transfer coefficients were calculated by considering the two elements as conductors in series arrangements for the interfaces to heat flow. For the case of a coil and a heat generator, the coefficient had the following form:

$$\frac{\text{Total}}{\text{Resistance}} = \frac{\text{Resistance}}{\text{of coil}} + \frac{\text{Resistance}}{\text{of generator}} \quad (III-7)$$

$$\frac{1}{h_{p-1}} = \frac{1}{h_1} \left(\frac{h_1}{k_1} \right) + \frac{1}{h_2} \left(\frac{h_2}{k_2} \right) \quad (III-8)$$

$$h_{p-1} = \frac{k_1}{\frac{1}{h_1} \left(\frac{h_1}{k_1} \right) + \frac{1}{h_2} \left(\frac{h_2}{k_2} \right)} \quad (III-9)$$

where h_{p-1} is the heat transfer coefficient between the heat generator and the coil, and h_1 and h_2 are the thermal conductivities and heights, respectively. The heat transfer coefficients involving the internal convection were obtained by substituting the radius equivalent to one-half the radius of the laminar element, and considering the area through the diameter. From this radius to the outer radius of the element. The area obtained is the area of the laminar conduction is, of course, circular all the resistance. Therefore, for a section of the surface of the

amount of 1.38, the following heat transfer coefficients are obtained:

$$h_{\text{air-to-ice}} = \frac{h}{\left(\frac{1}{h_1} + \frac{R_1}{k_1} + \frac{R_2}{k_2}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{h_2} + \frac{R_3}{k_3}\right)} \quad (11-6)$$

All other heat transfer coefficients were computed in a manner similar to those presented above.

Because of the high initial temperatures of the heat generators, radiation rather than convection or evaporation is the principal mechanism of heat transfer while the generators are igniting. A pseudo-convection heat transfer coefficient was calculated for this period based on the law of radiation. It was arbitrarily decided that 327°K was the temperature where the principal mechanism changed from radiation to "convection". The heat transfer coefficient describing the radiation transfer can be calculated as follows (11-7):

$$h_r = \frac{1}{4} \epsilon_{\text{eff}} \sigma (T_1^4 - T_2^4) \quad (11-8)$$

where q is the rate of heat transfer, and h is the heat of the heat transfer medium. P is a dimensionless factor to allow for heat-transfer between gray surfaces; it is the Stefan-Boltzmann constant.

ϵ_{eff} is $(\epsilon_1 h_1 + \epsilon_2 h_2) / (h_1 + h_2)$, and T is the temperature in degrees Kelvin.

$$h_{12} = \frac{h}{\frac{1}{\bar{P}} + \left(\frac{1}{h_1} - 1\right) + \frac{h_2}{h_1} \left(\frac{1}{h_2} - 1\right)} \quad (11-9)$$

where $\bar{P}$ is a dimensionless geometrical factor to allow for net radiation between black surfaces (including the effect of refractory surfaces), and

g) to the dimensionless activity

The equilibrium heat transfer coefficient is obtained from

$$h_{T=0} = \frac{P_{\text{eff}}(T_1^0 + T_2^0)}{2\theta} + h_{T=0} \quad (11-15)$$

where T_1^0 is evaluated as the arithmetic average of the initial points of the extreme values of the heat generation temperature during the particular period and T_2^0 , the wall temperature, was evaluated similarly. θ is taken as the geometric mean of the extreme values of the temperature difference (ΔT) . Detailed computations of all these coefficients are shown in appendix A.

B. Development of the Polymorphic Model

A differential heat balance around each element (Fig. 1) with generation, viz. 7) gives the equations shown in Table 1 with notation having the significance indicated below:

K = polymerization heat transfer coefficient, $\frac{\text{cal}}{\text{cm}^2 \cdot \text{min} \cdot ^\circ\text{C}}$

h = height of element, - (See Figure 1)

R = radius of element, - (See Figure 1)

T_0 = outside radius of reactor, - (See Figure 1)

T = temperature of element, $^\circ\text{C}$

t = time, min

Subscripts

a = refers to the catalyst

w = refers to the wall

g = refers to the generation

TABLE I

DIFFERENTIAL COEFFICIENT EQUATIONS FOR NONPOLYMERIC MONOMER

<u>Zero-Association</u>			
$-d^2\bar{y}_{A,1-q}/d\bar{y}_A^2 \cdot \bar{y}_A^2 = \text{const} \bar{y}_{A,1-q} d^2\bar{y}_{A,1}^2/d\bar{y}_A^2 \cdot \bar{y}_{A,1}^2 = d^2\bar{y}_{A,1-q} d^2\bar{y}_{A,1}^2/d\bar{y}_A^2 \cdot \bar{y}_{A,1}^2 = d^2\bar{y}_{A,1-q} d^2\bar{y}_{A,1}^2/d\bar{y}_A^2$			(100-102)
Initial Condition For Equation (100-102)	$\text{at } \bar{y}_A = 0$	$\bar{y}_{A,1} = \bar{y}_A$	(100-103)
<u>One-Association</u>			
$-d^2\bar{y}_{A,1-q}/d\bar{y}_A^2 \cdot \bar{y}_A^2 = \text{const} \bar{y}_{A,1-q} d^2\bar{y}_{A,1}^2/d\bar{y}_A^2 \cdot \bar{y}_{A,1}^2 = d^2\bar{y}_{A,1-q} d^2\bar{y}_{A,1}^2/d\bar{y}_A^2 \cdot \bar{y}_{A,1}^2 = d^2\bar{y}_{A,1-q} d^2\bar{y}_{A,1}^2/d\bar{y}_A^2$			(103-105)
Initial Condition For Equation (103-105)	$\text{at } \bar{y}_A = 0$	$\bar{y}_{A,1} = \text{const} \bar{y}_A$	(103-106)
<u>Two-Association</u>			
$-d^2\bar{y}_{A,1-q}/d\bar{y}_A^2 \cdot \bar{y}_A^2 = \text{const} \bar{y}_{A,1-q} d^2\bar{y}_{A,1}^2/d\bar{y}_A^2 \cdot \bar{y}_{A,1}^2 = d^2\bar{y}_{A,1-q} d^2\bar{y}_{A,1}^2/d\bar{y}_A^2 \cdot \bar{y}_{A,1}^2 = d^2\bar{y}_{A,1-q} d^2\bar{y}_{A,1}^2/d\bar{y}_A^2$			(106-108)
Initial Condition For Equation (106-108)	$\text{at } \bar{y}_A = 0$	$\bar{y}_{A,1} = \bar{y}_A$	(106-109)
<u>Multiple-Association</u>			
$-d^2\bar{y}_{A,1-q}/d\bar{y}_A^2 \cdot \bar{y}_A^2 = \text{const} \bar{y}_{A,1-q} d^2\bar{y}_{A,1}^2/d\bar{y}_A^2 \cdot \bar{y}_{A,1}^2 = d^2\bar{y}_{A,1-q} d^2\bar{y}_{A,1}^2/d\bar{y}_A^2 \cdot \bar{y}_{A,1}^2 = d^2\bar{y}_{A,1-q} d^2\bar{y}_{A,1}^2/d\bar{y}_A^2$			(109-111)
Initial Condition For Equation (109-111)	$\text{at } \bar{y}_A = 0$	$\bar{y}_{A,1} = \text{const} \bar{y}_A$	(109-112)

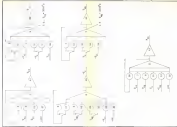


Figure 1:
Building the network structure of model (1)

Subscripts explained

β = refers to the translation

λ = refers to lateral

α = refers to width; i. e., $\alpha\beta$ refers to width parameter

θ = refers to radiation (See equation III-1)

γ = refers to top; i. e., $\gamma\beta$ refers to the top translation

Example

$h_{\beta\lambda\gamma\theta}$ refers to the heat transfer coefficient between the top insulator and the lateral translation.

3. Analog Computer Solution

The preceding equations in Table I are used to obtain the rate derivative of temperature with respect to time, and they constitute a system of ordinary first-order linear differential equations which is readily amenable to solution with the aid of an analog computer. The MIT (MIT analog computer of the Stanford Engineering Department of the University of Florida was utilized in this investigation.

The basic element of the analog computer is the electronic amplifier which can serve as an integrator or a summer depending on whether a resistor or a capacitor is connected across the input(s). Many references discuss in detail the theory and operation of analog computers [28,29]. The equations describing the model, were programmed on the analog computer, and the analog computer circuit is shown in Figure 5. Table II illustrates the algebraic form of the relations between the parameters which constitute the heat exchanger analog

TABLE 2

COEFFICIENTS FOR DISCRETE DIFFERENTIAL
DIFFUSION EQUATION MODEL 2

Eqn. No.	Numerical Formulation	Val. (k=10)
1	$\frac{1}{F_1 K_{12} K_{13}} \left[K_{13} u_1 + \frac{2K_{12}}{h} u_{1-1/2} + u_{1-1} \right]$	0.445
2	$\frac{K_{12} K_{13}}{F_1^2 K_{12} K_{13}}$	0.127
3	$\frac{1}{F_1 K_{12} K_{13}} \left[K_{13} u_2 + \frac{2K_{12}}{h} u_{2-1/2} + u_{2-1} \right]$	0.744
4	$\frac{K_{12} K_{13}}{F_1^2 K_{12} K_{13}}$	0.199
5	$\frac{K_{12} K_{13}}{F_1^2 K_{12} K_{13}}$	0.165
6	$\frac{K_{12} K_{13} K_{14}}{F_1^2 K_{12} K_{13} - 12 K_{14} + 24 K_{12} + K_{14}}$	0.362
7	$\frac{K_{12} K_{13} K_{14}}{F_1^2 K_{12} K_{13} - 12 K_{14} + 24 K_{12} + K_{14}}$	0.4032
8	$\frac{1}{F_1 K_{12} K_{13}} \left[K_{13} u_1 + \frac{2K_{12}}{h} u_{1-1/2} + u_{1-1} \right]$	0.2993
9	$\frac{1}{F_1 K_{12} K_{13}} \left[K_{13} u_2 + \frac{2K_{12}}{h} u_{2-1/2} + u_{2-1} \right]$	0.133
10	$\frac{2K_{12} K_{13}}{255}$	0.0028
11	$\frac{2K_{12} K_{13}}{F_1^2 K_{12} K_{13}}$	0.121

TABLE I (Continued)

Eq. No.	Substituted Denominator	Dec. Scaling
14	$\frac{b_1 T}{\rho_1 \rho_{\text{ref}} \bar{C}_p^0 + 124b_{11} + 168(b_{12} + b_{13})}$	0.1000
15	$\frac{b_1 b_2 T^2 b_3}{\rho_1 \rho_{\text{ref}} \bar{C}_p^0 + 124b_{11} + 168(b_{12} + b_{13})}$	0.1000
17	$\frac{b_1 b_2 b_3}{\rho_1 \rho_{\text{ref}} \bar{C}_p^0}$	0.0007
18	$\frac{b_1 b_2 T^2 b_3 T^2}{168 \rho_1 \rho_{\text{ref}} \bar{C}_p^0 + 1}$	0.0000
19	$\frac{b_1 b_2 b_3 + 124 b_1 b_2 T^2 b_3 + b_1 b_2 b_3 T^2}{\rho_1 \rho_{\text{ref}} \bar{C}_p^0 + 124b_{11} + 168(b_{12} + b_{13})}$ $+ \frac{b_1 b_2 b_3 + 124 b_{12} + b_1 b_2 b_3 T^2}{\rho_1 \rho_{\text{ref}} \bar{C}_p^0 + 124b_{11} + 168(b_{12} + b_{13})}$	0.0000
20	$\frac{b_1 b_2 T^2 b_3}{\rho_1 \rho_{\text{ref}} \bar{C}_p^0}$	0.0007
21	$\frac{b_1 b_2 T^2 b_3}{\rho_1 \rho_{\text{ref}} \bar{C}_p^0}$	0.0000
22	$\frac{b_1 b_2 T^2 b_3}{\rho_1 \rho_{\text{ref}} \bar{C}_p^0}$	0.0000

PART 5 (Continued)

<u>Doc. No.</u>	<u>Mathematical Expression</u>	<u>Doc. Number</u>
24	$\frac{h_{12+11}}{r_1^2 r_{12}^2 r_{11}}$	0-001
25	$\frac{h_{12+12}}{r_1^2 r_{12}^2 r_{12}}$	0-011
26	$\frac{h_{12+13}}{r_1^2 r_{12}^2 r_{13}}$	0-101
27	Three Zeros	0-000
28	Initial Rate of First Excitation	0-000
29	Steady State of First Excitation	0-010
30	$\frac{h_{12+11}}{r_1^2 r_{12}^2 r_{12}} \left[r_{12+11} + \frac{h_{12}}{r_1} r_{12+11} \right]$	0-010
31	$\frac{h_{12+12}}{r_1^2 r_{12}^2 r_{12}}$	0-011
32	$\frac{h_{12+13}}{r_1^2 r_{12}^2 r_{13}} \left[r_{12+13} + \frac{2h_{12}}{r_1} r_{12+11} + r_{12+11} \right]$	0-021
33	$\frac{h_{12+14}}{r_1^2 r_{12}^2 r_{14}}$	0-111
34	$\frac{h_{12+15}}{r_1^2 r_{12}^2 r_{15}} \left[r_{12+15} + \frac{2h_{12}}{r_1} r_{12+11} + r_{12+11} \right]$	0-111
35	$\frac{h_{12+16}}{r_1^2 r_{12}^2 r_{16}}$	0-111
36	$\frac{h_{12+17}}{r_1^2 r_{12}^2 r_{17}} \left[r_{12+17} + \frac{2h_{12}}{r_1} r_{12+11} + r_{12+11} \right]$	0-101
37	$\frac{h_{12+18}}{r_1^2 r_{12}^2 r_{18}}$	0-100
38	$\frac{h_{12+19}}{r_1^2 r_{12}^2 r_{19}}$	0-111

These features are, of course, a direct consequence of the formal structure of differential equations.

Table 3 lists the values of the physical parameters for all the materials which simulate the "wound" battery being simulated. These are the values used in obtaining the values shown in Table 2 for each phenomenon existing in the simulation of the wounded battery. In other words, the values of some of these parameters were changed purposely to investigate their effect on the performance of the battery.

It has been pointed out earlier that a set of relations was arranged to automatically change the value of the heat transfer coefficient to account for reduction heat transfer at the heat generator wall whenever the heat generator temperature is above 720°F . This temperature was chosen for the change from radiation to convection heat transfer because it seemed reasonable and in good agreement with the known reduction time of certain chemical reactions. However, it is in excellent wall peak temperatures.

The representation of the low-velocity heat generation by a triangular heat of reaction was also replaced a model of reaction to provide an appropriate simulation on the cooling circuit. The details of these cooling arrangements are shown in Appendix B.

Also a special pulsed was included which permitted the initiation or cessation of the heat of reaction due to the chemical reaction present in the cells.

TABLE I

ATTRACT-REPELION PROPERTIES AND MINIMIZED
OF THERMAL FACTOR EXPONENTS: MODEL 1

Equilibrium

$$p_1, \text{ g/cm}^3 = 0.100$$

$$C_{p1}, \frac{\text{cal}}{\text{g}^2\text{K}} = 0.100$$

$$h_1, \frac{\text{cal cm}^3}{\text{g}^2\text{K cm}^2} = 0.0002$$

$$h_2, \text{ cm} = 0.100$$

$$h_3, \text{ cm} = 1.00$$

$$h_{p1}, \text{ cm} = 1.00$$

Boundary

$$p_1, \text{ g/cm}^3 = 1.00$$

$$C_{p1}, \frac{\text{cal}}{\text{g}^2\text{K}} = 0.100$$

$$h_1, \frac{\text{cal cm}^3}{\text{g}^2\text{K cm}^2} = 0.0002$$

$$h_2, \text{ cm} = 0.10$$

$$h_3, \text{ cm} = 1.00$$

Well

$$p_1, \text{ g/cm}^3 = 0.10$$

$$C_{p1}, \frac{\text{cal}}{\text{g}^2\text{K}} = 0.100$$

TABLE 1 (continued)

(continued)

$$k_1 \frac{dy_1}{dt} - \frac{dy_2}{dt} = 0.11$$

$$k_2 \text{ sec} = 0.10$$

$$k_3 \text{ sec} = 1.00$$

II. Selection of Models

The great flexibility of the coding approach permitted the investigation of a wide range of parametric and geometrical arrangements which might affect the life of a thermal battery. A summary of the more important results is given in Table I and they are discussed below.

The model studied in this work has several limitations and some cautions should be exercised in attributing too much significance to small effects. On the other hand, large effects are probably correct and qualitative conclusions based on them should be sound. Probably the most serious limitation of this study is that it is not based on analysis but on pseudo-experiments using numerical manipulation. Temperature gradients within an element are thus precluded, and this is known to be important. However, the temperature gradients within an element do not appear to be large (except perhaps for the first few seconds in the heat generation), and the model appears to describe the temperature histories of elements in an actual battery rather well (see Figure 10).

It should be noted also that the complexity of the physical models which can be studied on a coding computer is limited by the capacity of the computer, and the time required to obtain meaningful results is greatly increased when the model is made more complex because there are more components and all of their properties, parameters, equations, etc. must be given satisfactorily for the results to be valid. The problem which was here programmed on the

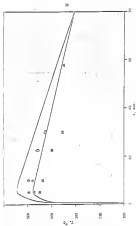


Figure 3. Dependence of Critical Temperature

TABLE 4

EFFECT OF VARIATION AND QUANTILES ON THE LIFE
OF AGRICULTURAL MACHINERY

	Realistic Experiments			$\frac{100^{\frac{1}{2}} \times 1.40}{100^{\frac{1}{2}} \times 1.10}$	$\frac{100^{\frac{1}{2}} \times 1.40}{100^{\frac{1}{2}} \times 1.10}$
	-40°C	20°C	100°C		
	hrs.	hrs.	hrs.	hrs.	Hours- minutes
A. Initialing					
1. Thermal Chamber					
a. Initialing					
0.0001	54	47	47	1.37	1.37
0.0001 (end)	55	48	48	1.40	1.39
0.0001	56.5	50.5	44	1.37	1.36
b. Discharge					
100	48	56	45	1.37	1.37
B. Degreasing					
1. Discharge					
10		58			1.39
2. Initialing					
$p = 50$, $h = 1.51 \times$		59			1.37
C. Experimental Data					
1. Discharge					
1.30		59			1.37
1.30		59 (4 hrs. max)			1.39
10		100 (21 hrs. max)			1.39

* h = mean standard value of parameter being tested

TABLE 4. (Continued)

	Soil Moisture Conditions			$\frac{100 \times \text{Soil Moisture}}{100 - \text{Soil Moisture}}$	$\frac{100 \times \text{Soil Moisture}}{100 - \text{Soil Moisture}}$
	-40°F	30°F	50°F		
	Low	Med	High	Low	High
B. Electrodeless Cells (Continued)					
1. Battery $\frac{100 \times \text{Soil Moisture}}{100 - \text{Soil Moisture}}$					
1.10*		98			0.75
0.95		95			0.75
2. Open-Cell Wet Electrodes					
1. Low					
0.95		98			0.93
0.90		95			1.00
0.75		92			1.00
0.60		88			1.00
2. High					
0.95		92			0.94
0.90		88			1.00
0.75		85			1.00
3. Med					
0.95		92			1.00
0.90		88			1.00
0.75		85			0.98

* 0 = class classified value of potential being noted

1.0

with 1000 being Chrysler represented essentially the limit of the capabilities of the instrument.

1. Temperature Distribution in a Standard Diesel Engine

The temperature distribution of this engine is the standard standard diesel battery six shown in Figure 4. These elements are (1) top heat generator, (2) water heat generator, (3) wall, (4) top insulation, (5) bottom insulation.

From Figure 4 it can be seen that both of the heat generators release their heat directly to the wall and via top insulation. After five seconds after activation the temperatures of the heat generators are below the wall temperature, but the water heat generator is only slightly cooler than the wall. Thus, it can be said that the wall is heating the generators after the first few seconds.

The wall is shown to have a temperature of 400°F is seen that 5.4 seconds, but little experience should be attached to this figure; the response of the recorder was not particularly good for times of less than ten seconds. Figure 4 indicates that the wall reaches a peak temperature of about 400°F is approximately five seconds which is in good agreement with experience. All of the curves in Figure 4 are in reasonably good agreement with what one would expect for a heat transfer system of the type under consideration.

2. Effect of Peak Heat Temperature on Wall Temperature

At the eight second, the temperature history of a wall is strongly dependent on the heat sink temperature. The data summarized in Table 4 indicate that the wall life when 400°F is approximately twice

as great when the test side temperature is 1000°F instead of 400°F from temperature results not shown here. Figure 7 illustrates the temperature distribution for a standard wall of the three test side temperatures.

3. Effect of Insulation Properties on Cool Temperatures

Thermal insulation has a thermal conductivity of about 0.0002 cal./cm. $\text{in.}^2 \text{ } ^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1} \text{ sec}^{-1}$, and this has been adopted as the standard insulation type. The thermal conductivity of asbestos is around 0.0001 in order to assess the effect of a large improvement in insulating properties, and this was used with a hypothetical insulation having a thermal conductivity of 0.0005. These results are tabulated in Table 4, and it may readily be seen that thermal conductivity of the insulation is an important factor in the life of the wall. A variation of the life above 400°F at a 10°F test side temperature shows that a 100% variation in life might be expected with the use of asbestos in thermal conductivity studies. Figures 8 and 9 show the curves for wall temperatures at these conditions.

Table 4 also shows that doubling the insulation thickness (or theoretical results is relatively little increase in life except at a test side temperature of 400°F . When life is not limited by test side temperatures, increasing the insulation thickness would appear to be a quite promising means of increasing wall life. These curves are shown in Figure 10.

4. Analysis of Cool Boundary Conditions

The heat generated per unit area was studied. (1) A radiation in

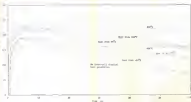


Fig. 1. Effect of time on the percentage of change in the percentage of the population.

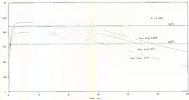


FIGURE 11. Effect of the concentration of sodium chloride on the thermal denaturation of the nucleosome.

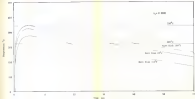


Figure 11. Effect of contact temperature on curing of the Boreal Resinoid 9 at the condenser.

the thickness of the heat generator, and (2) a variation in their relative size.

The effect of doubling the thickness of the heat generator is illustrated in Figure 14. The net effect on cell life appears to be quite small. Although doubling the thickness of the heat generator increases the heat available for the cells, the consequent increase in the size of the core requires the same cell to heat a larger volume than was the effect of the gain in heat. It should be recalled that the cells were at the heat source after the third test cycle (see Figure 11). Thus there is a slightly higher peak temperature, either at layer 4 or in the standard arrangement because of the longer heat path to the generator, but the cell cools more rapidly than the standard since cooling starts because the size of the core is larger and thus heat losses are greater. The net effect of the change is essentially none as far as the cell life over 400⁰ is concerned.

If the standard heat generator is compressed the heat generator has per unit volume of generator increased. In Figure 15 the effect of compressing the heat generator to one-half of its original thickness is portrayed. It may readily be seen that the peak temperatures and rise time of the cell are not greatly affected. However, the rate of heat loss of the cell is greatly reduced as compared to the standard arrangement - owing primarily to the reduction in core size - and an increase in cell life over 400⁰ of about 60% is observed.

3. Isolation of Cell Parameters

These cell parameters were varied: (1) cell thickness, (2) cell

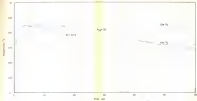


Figure 10: Effect of time temperature on magnetic properties of the composite

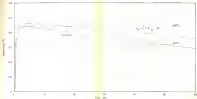


Figure 1: Evolution of the number of nodes (N) over time (t) for three different network models.

solidity, and III laser-wall chemical heat generation. The effect of these parameters is studied in a separate calculation because several features involved were studied.

Knowing that the standard components of a wall are used regardless of thickness, it is evident that the solidity of a wall is proportional to the thickness. One may also observe that the heat transfer paths are also lengthened for heat, heating and cooling, and the wall equals a thick wall to both heat and cool more slowly than a standard one. The effect of varying wall thickness is illustrated in Figure 1b, and the data, indeed, shows these effects. Since the heat input is constant (except for the laser-wall chemical heat generation built in), the peak temperatures decrease as the wall thickness increases, however, the laser-wall heat generation begins to contribute more heavily as wall thickness increases and when the thickness is increased by 50% the peak temperature is actually decreased by the laser-wall heat generation. Thus the peak temperatures are reached a fairly long time after initiation due to these cases.

The activation times of which walls are then lowered, and has some probability for very thick walls. It appears that a thickness increase of no more than 50% can be selected versus activation times of more than 50 seconds are prohibitive, or when other geometric arrangements are used.

It is possible in principle to add to the wall materials which can change the solidity. For example, a material having a transition in the temperature range of interest might be added. It is obvious that

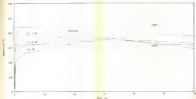


Figure 11. Effect of the initial concentration of the monomer on the rate of polymerization.

the best of kinds of the electrolyte in the cell cannot be of any assistance for the performance of thermal battery must suffer badly when the temperature approaches the freezing point because of the change in the electrolyte conductivity of the electrolyte. Therefore, this paper represents a hypothetical design in parameters which would merit serious investigation. It is thought proper to contribute strongly to cell life.

In Figure 1b the effect of a 10% change in cell voltage is illustrated. The most obvious effect is that at peak temperature substantial decrease in the cell voltage while maintaining the same heat input. This heat generation would result in a changing of the cell. A substantial increase in cell voltage with no change in heat input would result in the cell just barely keeping balanced. Clearly the only practical remedy would be to adjust heat generation level on the voltage requirements of the cell.

When the cell is in the primary heat transfer effect (the first few seconds of operation), it is clear that increasing the cell voltage should be beneficial everything else being the same. This, in fact, is seen to be the case in Figure 1b, where the slope of the cooling portions of the curves are in proportion to the cell voltage. Thus, a combination of changes in cell voltage, by means of adjustment in electrode changes, and in the heat generation by which heat would appear to offer possibilities in the way of meeting varying conditions of time of operation and life.

Another possibility appears here, namely illustration of design with cell heat generation, which have a positive or negative effect

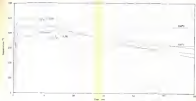


Figure 5b Effect on time temperature of melting the melting of a 1.25%

for heat augmentation, and a larger problem which involves clearly not merely a, but numerous to prolong life. Unfortunately the capacity of the existing computer did not permit a problem of this complexity to be applied.

6. Effect of Rate and Level of Heat Generation by Chemical Reactions in Solids

It has been noted earlier that the problem is the classical chemical reaction can also occur spontaneously to produce heat but an uncertainty. While it might appear that any such reaction would be successful, it cannot not only be so when the major limitation is wall rate appears to be heat losses rather than exhaustion of reactants, and these losses will obviously themselves generate heat as a major share in the heat addition to heating the structure's interior.

The effect on all temperature histories of these chemical reactions is illustrated in Figure 12 for a heat sink temperature of 22°C . It is seen that the peak temperature of 220°C is reached at about 4 seconds, and that the life of the wall above 200°C is about 40 sec--when the normal heat generation is used.

It must about the heat generation be in order. The general shape of this reaction (which is approximate, of course) is also shown in Figure 12. The shape and the average rate of heat input to the system are based on experimental performance similar to the Energy Research Laboratory of the University of Florida, and an advanced version of conventional propellants familiar with the design and operation of a number of types of thermal batteries. In this study the initial rate of heat generation was chosen to be $10 \text{ cal per cm}^3 \text{ per sec}$ because of the

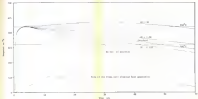


Figure 10. Effect on shift frequency of dropping the magnitude of the joint shift (normalized) for normal and time on the time-zero shifted base operation.

will strongly depend. The heat generation rates of which will result is caused by the range of heat generation rates used.

From Figure 11 it may be seen that the peak temperatures and the time to reach it are not strongly dependent on the value of the wall heat generation rate which may range from 100 to 1000000 standard candles/meter. A change in the heat generation rate of 100% results in change the time above 400°C by about 100% without causing appreciable peak temperatures. Figure 12 also indicates that a heat generation rate of 1000000 standard candles/meter would lead to a relatively small increase in the peak temperatures, but it would result in a delay in reaching the peak temperatures of approximately 20 seconds and would result in approximately twice the time above 400°C.

Figure 13 indicates the shape of the heat generation functions programmed in these experiments. The peak heat generation rate and the decay rates were held constant and the rise rate varied from zero to twice the standard rate. The data in Table 4 indicate that this change produced essentially no change in the wall temperature history. Additionally these wall peak temperatures turned out to be essentially unaffected.

This kind of effect resulted, however, because the heat generation rate chosen as a standard is such as to affect only the cooling portion of the temperature history of the rail. In any significant way, for example, a system employing an inlet-wall standard heat generation rate over this range as large as the standard should be studied. A



Figure 10: Change of 'In' and 'Out' states of a system over time. The 'In' state is the state of the system.

will have pronounced effect on the temperature history of the well could be noted.

Figure 17 illustrates the effect of changes in decay rate studied here the decay rate and peak generation rate were held constant and the decay rate varied from one-half to 1.5 times that of the standard. It is clear from examination of the temperature curves of a well (see attached graph) and of the data in Table 4 that only a small effect is noted. There is no effect on activation time and peak temperature, but the cooling rate of the well is affected slightly.

In summary, it does not appear that alteration of either rate or decay rates of the (low-well) standard heat generation function within broad limits would strongly affect the temperature history of a well. However, the level of this type of heat generation, Q_{max} , a change in the rate of standard heat generation per well volume could have a significant effect.

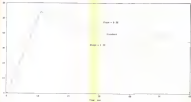


Figure 10: Change in total mass of solution (Standard Deviation 10%)

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS (CHAPTERS 40001-42)

4. Description of the Model

The next phase of the investigation concerning dynamic load involves in detail techniques called for a study of the effect of the nature and structure of the insulation on the performance of thermal insulation. It should be obvious that Model I, which was discussed in the preceding chapter is inadequate to simulate an insulation system composed of more than one insulating material.

This model was developed primarily so as to be able to study the effect of different combinations of insulating materials on the battery performance. In order to accomplish this description and at the same time keep the problem within the practical capabilities of the available testing computer (IBM 6500 testing computer), a number of simplifying assumptions were made:

The most significant simplifying assumption of this model as compared to Model I is that the electrolyte is considered to have a temperature everywhere having the average physical properties of the electrolyte at the cells and heat generation. Furthermore, this temperature was assumed to be uniform with no temperature gradient. Therefore, only one ordinary differential equation describes the heat balance conditions in the cell.

This model is more complicated than Model I in that the insulation is considered to consist of two elements rather than one [see

Figure 105. This model makes it possible to simulate a wire surrounded by four successive layers of different thermal characteristics, each, of course, having its internal temperature gradient, and having the thermal resistance imposed at the interfaces as in Model 1.

Another important difference between the two models existed in the manner in which the battery resistance is calculated. In the case of Model 1 it was assumed that the heat generated remains in essentially instantaneous heat source, and, in order to take the role of capacitance resistance, it was postulated that the initial temperature of the heat generator was 1000°K , which is the approximate temperature of the center of the heat generator. The temperature gradient between the heat generator and the coil was the driving force which promoted the heat transfer.

In the case of Model II, where only one element is assumed to simulate the coil-generator assembly, it is meaningless to mention wire temperatures of the order of 2000°K , since because the capability of the generator does not permit such average wire temperatures and actually because there exists a high-temperature fluid at about 2900°C above which the electrochemical species in the cells undergoes undesirable transformations [1]. Therefore, close simulation of the temperature distribution of coil and generator is shown in Figure 6, where it was observed that the temperature of coil and generator was essentially the same only a few seconds after initiation and that it remained so for the rest of the operating period. It was decided to assume for the wire a heat generation rate equivalent to solution to the cathode of the



Figure 18 Schematic Diagram of Tunnel Constructed by Metal 21

test parameters of Model 1. This test generation rule was assumed to be an exponential decay function which was judged to be an adequate simulation of the robot energy level of the test generators.

Another difference between the two models is that in Model 2 the boundary between top and lateral locomotion was assumed to be vertical and in this model, the boundary between the corresponding top and lateral elements in the locomotion area was assumed to be a tangency surface curving diagonally from the outer corner of the area to the outer corner of the assembly. This arbitrary shape assumed for the locomotion elements has some rather interesting consequences in the form of the coefficients of the differential-difference equations which describe the system. This point will be discussed in more detail later.

One final simplification of this model relative to Model 1 was the elimination of the last of variables seen for in the wall. This was done solely because the effect of the inner-wall last of variables had been evaluated in Model 1, and because its inclusion would have complicated this model without contributing appreciably to the qualitative differences between different locomotion arrangements.

4. Development of the Differential Model

As is shown in Appendix I that when the boundary surface between corresponding top and lateral locomotion elements is assumed to have the shape illustrated in Figures 10 and 11-b, the value of the top locomotion element is given by

$$r_{12} = \frac{2b_1^2}{f} \alpha_{12}^2 + b_1^2 b_{1+1} + r_1^2 \quad (112-1)$$

where r is the radius of the element, b its height, and f is the radius. The constant area of contact between the top and lateral elements is given by the expression

$$A_{121} = \pi b(b_1 + b_{1+1}) \quad (112-2)$$

and the volume of the lateral insulation element is given by

$$v_{12} = \frac{2b_1^2}{f} \alpha_{12}^2 b_{1+1} + b_1^2 b_{1+1} - \frac{b_1^3}{3} + \pi(b_{1+1}^2 + b_1^2) b_1 \quad (112-3)$$

where b_1 is the height of the element at point B (Figure 1-12).

The heat transfer coefficients were calculated in a manner identical to the one utilized in Ref. 1. That is, by assuming the thermal resistance between the adjacent elements to be lumped at the interface. This resistance was calculated by consideration of the mean heat path between the adjacent elements and their respective thermal conductivities. The constant values of the heat transfer coefficients for Ref. 12 are shown in Appendix 1.

The differential-difference equations were developed by heat balance considerations of each of the elements making up the structural battery. If the following substitutions are utilized for the purpose of simplification, the differential-difference equations which describe the system take the form shown in Table 1.

$$r_1 = \frac{2b_1^2}{f} \alpha_{12}^2 + b_1^2 b_{1+1} + r_1^2 \quad (113-1)$$

and

$$r_1 = \frac{2b_1^2}{f} \alpha_{12}^2 + b_1^2 b_{1+1} - \frac{b_1^3}{3} = r_1^* b_1^2 \alpha_{12}^2 + r_1^* \quad (113-2)$$

4. Decay Constant Solution

The equations shown in Table I were programmed on the analog computer and the results are shown in Figure 12.

The polynomial models corresponding to the 12 are listed in Table I together with the corresponding mathematical expression for each parameter. The values of the physical parameters used in these simulations are shown in Table 2.

It should be noted that Amplifier 12 in the computer diagram represents the exponential decay type of heat transfer associated with the core. This exponential function was designed so that the integral over time of this function, namely the total amount of heat generated by unit volume of core, resulted in a core peak temperature near the melting stage. The value which produced the total radiative core peak temperature (300°C) corresponded to 200 and λ_p of heat generation in the core from Appendix B.

Because of the high initial rate of change of temperature in the core and the nature of the simplifying assumptions of this model, it was realized that the model could not predict chain temperatures consistently during the first few seconds of operation. In any case, the primary aim was in this study was with the cooling period, and with the effect of changes in the thermal properties of the materials and the geometric development of the assembly in the cooling core.

5. Simulation of Results

This model is a variation of Model I and is in based on essentially the same assumptions as the latter; therefore, many of the considerations discussed in the preceding chapter are applicable



TABLE 2

DIFFERENTIAL-ALGEBRAIC EQUATIONS FOR
INTEGRATING POINT 11

For Element 5

$$= \frac{h_1^2 h_2}{h_1^2} \text{det}(\tau_3 - \tau_4) - \frac{h_1^2 h_2}{h_1^2} \text{det}(\tau_4 - \tau_2) - \frac{(h_1 + h_2) h_2}{h_1^2} \text{det}_{\text{out}}(\tau_4 - \tau_2) = \frac{\partial \tau_2}{\partial t}$$

For Element 2

$$= \frac{h_1^2 h_2}{h_1^2} \text{det}(\tau_3 - \tau_4) - \frac{h_1^2 h_2}{h_1^2} \text{det}(\tau_1 - \tau_2) - \frac{(h_1 + h_2) h_2}{h_1^2} \text{det}_{\text{out}}(\tau_3 - \tau_2) = \frac{\partial \tau_2}{\partial t}$$

For Element 3

$$= \frac{h_1^2 h_2}{h_1^2} \text{det}(\tau_3 - \tau_2) - \frac{h_1^2 h_2}{h_1^2} \text{det}(\tau_1 - \tau_2) - \frac{(h_1 + h_2) h_2}{h_1^2} \text{det}_{\text{out}}(\tau_3 - \tau_2) = \frac{\partial \tau_2}{\partial t}$$

For Element 4

$$= \frac{h_1^2 h_2}{h_1^2} \text{det}(\tau_3 - \tau_2) - \frac{h_1^2 h_2}{h_1^2} \text{det}(\tau_1 - \tau_2) - \frac{(h_1 + h_2) h_2}{h_1^2} \text{det}_{\text{out}}(\tau_3 - \tau_2) = \frac{\partial \tau_2}{\partial t}$$

For

$$= \frac{h_1^2 h_2}{h_1^2} \text{det}(\tau_3 - \tau_2) - \frac{h_1^2 h_2}{h_1^2} \text{det}(\tau_1 - \tau_2) - \frac{(h_1 + h_2) h_2}{h_1^2} \text{det}_{\text{out}}(\tau_3 - \tau_2) = \frac{\partial \tau_2}{\partial t}$$

Internal Element 1

$$= \frac{h_1^2 h_2}{h_1^2} \text{det}(\tau_3 - \tau_2) - \frac{h_1^2 h_2}{h_1^2} \text{det}(\tau_3 - \tau_2) - \frac{(h_1 + h_2) h_2}{h_1^2} \text{det}_{\text{out}}(\tau_3 - \tau_2) = \frac{\partial \tau_2}{\partial t}$$

Internal Element 2

$$= \frac{h_1^2 h_2}{h_1^2} \text{det}(\tau_3 - \tau_2) - \frac{h_1^2 h_2}{h_1^2} \text{det}(\tau_3 - \tau_2) - \frac{(h_1 + h_2) h_2}{h_1^2} \text{det}_{\text{out}}(\tau_3 - \tau_2) \\ = \frac{\partial \tau_2}{\partial t}$$

TABLE 1 (Continued)

Lemma 1. Lemma 1.

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \frac{(1_1 + 1_2)(1_1 + 1_2)}{1_1} \frac{1}{2} (1_1 + 1_2) = \frac{(1_1 + 1_2)(1_1 + 1_2)}{1_1} (1_1 + 1_2) = \frac{(1_1 + 1_2)^2}{1_1} (1_1 + 1_2) \\
&= \frac{(1_1 + 1_2)^3}{1_1}
\end{aligned}$$

Lemma 1. Lemma 1.

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \frac{(1_1 + 1_2)(1_1 + 1_2)}{1_1} \frac{1}{2} (1_1 + 1_2) = \frac{(1_1 + 1_2)(1_1 + 1_2)}{1_1} (1_1 + 1_2) = \frac{(1_1 + 1_2)^2}{1_1} (1_1 + 1_2) \\
&= \frac{(1_1 + 1_2)^3}{1_1}
\end{aligned}$$

TABLE I

COEFFICIENTS FOR CALCULATING
 HYPERVILL-HARTMAN'S SYSTEMS: MODEL III

Eq. No.	Mathematical Expression	Est. Spring
1	$\frac{A_1^2 A_2 A_3 + A_1 A_2^2 A_3 + A_3 + A_1 A_2 A_3 A_4}{A_1}$	34.34
4	$\frac{A_1^2 A_2 A_3}{A_1}$	24.46
5	$\frac{A_1^2 A_2 A_3}{A_1}$	1.424
6	$\frac{A_3 + A_1 A_2 A_3 A_4}{A_1}$	0.084
8	$\frac{A_1^2 A_2 A_3 + A_1 A_2^2 A_3 + A_3 + A_1 A_2 A_3 A_4}{A_2}$	34.34
11	$\frac{A_1^2 A_2 A_3}{A_2}$	24.46
14	$\frac{A_1^2 A_2 A_3}{A_2}$	1.421
16	$\frac{A_3 + A_1 A_2 A_3 A_4}{A_2}$	0.024
18	$\frac{A_1^2 A_2 A_3 + A_1 A_2^2 A_3 + A_3 + A_1 A_2 A_3 A_4}{A_3}$	4.324
19	$\frac{A_1^2 A_2 A_3}{A_3}$	8.024

TABLE 4 (Continued)

Int. No.	Symmetrized Determinant	Con. Relation
16	$\frac{U_2 U_3 U_{23}}{U_1}$	0.3944
17	$\frac{U_2 U_3 + U_2 U_3 U_{23}}{U_1}$	0.02715
18	$\frac{U_2 U_3 U_{23} + U_2 U_3 U_{23} + U_2 U_3 + U_2 U_3 U_{23}}{U_1}$	1.115
19	$\frac{U_2 U_3 U_{23}}{U_1}$	0.433
20	$\frac{U_2 U_3 U_{23}}{U_1}$	0.112
24	$\frac{U_2 U_3 + U_2 U_3 U_{23}}{U_1}$	1.0007
25	$\frac{U_2 U_{23}}{U_1 U_3 + U_2 U_3} + \frac{U_3 U_{23}}{U_1 U_2 + U_2 U_3}$	0.0222
17	U_3	0.1
18	$\frac{U_2 U_3}{U_1 U_2 + U_2 U_3}$	0.02037
19	$\frac{U_3 U_{23}}{U_1 U_2 + U_2 U_3}$	0.0002
20	$\frac{U_3}{U_1 U_2 + U_2 U_3}$	0.000
21	$\frac{U_2 U_3 + U_2 U_3 U_{23} + U_2 U_3 U_{23} + U_2 U_3 U_{23}}{U_1}$	15.14

TABLE 4 - (Continued)

Seq. No.	Reduced, per 1,000 women	Std. Deviation
31	$\frac{(P_2 + 3_2 P_2 P_{22})}{q_2}$	0.961
32	$\frac{2P_2 P_2 P_{22}}{q_2}$	0.444
33	$\frac{2P_2 P_2 P_{22}}{q_2}$	1.054
34	$\frac{(P_2 + 3_2 P_2 P_{22} + 2P_2 P_2 P_{22} + 2P_2 P_2 P_{22})}{q_2}$	0.431
35	$\frac{(P_2 + 3_2 P_2 P_{22})}{q_2}$	0.0007
36	$\frac{2P_2 P_2 P_{22}}{q_2}$	0.141
37	$\frac{2P_2 P_2 P_{22}}{q_2}$	1.271
38	$\frac{(P_2 + 3_2 P_2 P_{22} + 2P_2 P_2 P_{22} + 2P_2 P_2 P_{22})}{q_2}$	0.1543
39	$\frac{(P_2 + 3_2 P_2 P_{22})}{q_2}$	0.00026
40	$\frac{2P_2 P_2 P_{22}}{q_2}$	0.1743
41	$\frac{2P_2 P_2 P_{22}}{q_2}$	0.2044

TABLE 4 (Continued)

<u>Est. No.</u>	<u>Mathematical Expression</u>	<u>Est. Value</u>
38	$\frac{(D_2 + E_2) \frac{D_1 E_1}{D_1 + E_1} + 2D_1^2 E_1^2 + 2E_1^2 D_1^2}{E_1}$	1.129
39	$\frac{(D_2 + E_2) \frac{D_1 E_1}{D_1 + E_1}}{E_1}$	+ 0.000
40	$\frac{2D_1^2 E_1^2}{E_1}$	+ 0.000
41	$\frac{2D_1^2 E_1^2}{E_1}$	+ 0.000

TABLE 2

SPREAD PHYSICAL PROPERTIES AND CHARACTERISTICS
OF THERMAL ACTIVITY COEFFICIENT: MODEL 12

Steel

$$\begin{aligned} \rho &= 0.28 \text{ gm/cm}^3 \\ c_p &= 0.105 \text{ cal/cm}^2 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C} \\ k &= 0.03 \frac{\text{cal/cm}^2 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}}{\text{cm}^2 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C} \text{ sec}} \end{aligned}$$

Alum

$$\begin{aligned} \rho &= 0.2 \\ c_p &= 0.208 \\ k &= 0.008 \end{aligned}$$

Silicon

$$\begin{aligned} \rho &= 1.5 \\ c_p &= 0.508 \\ k &= 0.0008 \end{aligned}$$

Hexamelen

$$\begin{aligned} \rho &= 0.115 \\ c_p &= 0.138 \\ k &= 0.0001 \end{aligned}$$

Graph
Steel

$$\begin{aligned} \rho &= 0.0 \\ c_p &= 0.10 \\ k &= 0.11 \end{aligned}$$

long. The size of the available testing computer was again an important restriction which restricted the complexity that could be built into the model. In spite of this limitation, it was decided to continue with the testing computer study because it was believed that it could lead to qualitative information which would be of value to more precise studies utilizing a digital computer. This new valuable qualitative information was developed which consistently facilitated the development of the digital computer model. The results of the testing studies of Model II are summarized in Table 4.

1. Generalized Form of Isolation Element

The generalized steps needed for the isolation elements in Model II is exactly as more arbitrary than that needed for point 1 but it has two advantages:

1. Compared to the steps needed for the isolation elements in Model I, the steps used for the isolation elements in Model II referred to are the number of elements with which each isolation element was connected, thus consistently simplifying the differential difference equations of the system with the obvious consequence of a simplification in the testing computer circuit.

2. The steps needed for the isolation elements in Model II provide expressions for the area and volume of the corresponding real and natural isolation elements which illustrate the similarity of the real and ideal cases of heat transfer in a cylindrical structure described by this approximate model (see Appendix B). The similarity lies in the fact that the second steps provide values for the area and

TABLE 4

EFFECT OF CHANGES IN THE TEMPERATURE STRUCTURE ON LIFE
IN LARVAE OF COLEOPTERAN THIRIDAE-ADULTS

<u>Series</u>		<u>Species</u>	<u>Life ex. temp. (°C)</u> <u>Dev. at 10°C</u>	<u>Survival</u> <u>100%</u>
<u>Exp. No.</u>	<u>Control No.</u>			
10	4	Beetle (Standard)	50	1.00
	3	Wasp		
	2	Adelphiina		
	1	Therophilus		
14	4	Therophilus	45	0.90
	3	Wasp		
	2	Adelphiina		
	1	Beetle		
17	4	Adelphiina (New design)	95	1.00
	3	Adelphiina (New)		
	2	Therophilus		
	1	Therophilus		
18	4	Therophilus	90	0.95
	3	Therophilus		
	2	Adelphiina		
	1	Adelphiina		
19	4	Adelphiina	85	1.00
	3	Therophilus		
	2	Therophilus		
	1	Therophilus		
20	4	Therophilus	100	1.00
	3	Therophilus		
	2	Therophilus		
	1	Therophilus		

values of a lateral insulation element which are twice the values obtained for these elements in the corresponding top insulation element. Thus these elements have the same ratio of area to volume and the equations describing the differential heat balance in these elements have very similar coefficients, which is equivalent to very similar potentialities relative to corresponding preinsulations as shown in Table 4 for the case of preinsulations 1 and 10, 4 and 14, and many others. Figure 11 illustrates the related differential temperature character of the corresponding top and lateral insulation elements in Model II as a result of the above discussed similarity in their descriptive equations.

These results provided some justification for the assumption of spherical symmetry utilized in the digital computer model.

3. Description of Standard Thermal Battery

The standard thermal battery which, in the framework of this model, consisted of 4 individual ones arranged in series by Thomas. This construction, attached insulations, a steel layer and a metal can, was simulated and the results are shown in Figure 10. A time when min^2/s of 50-5 seconds was indicated. This figure is in reasonable agreement with experimental results.

One significant aspect of this figure is that the steel and metal layers did not rise appreciably above the temperature of the heat sink.

In view of these results, the steel and metal layers could be considered extensions of the heat sink. This assumption permitted a review of the analog computer which could be used to simulate in more

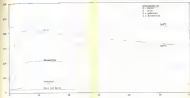


Figure 10: Regression of residuals for 2 months of rainfall (mm) on rainfall (mm)

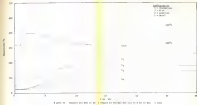
detail the heat transfer process in other sections of the battery.

3. Effect of a Metal Layer Between the Core and Core Container

Some investigators indicated that it might be advantageous from the standpoint of modulation of battery life, to place the metal core next to the core container and in the middle of the assembly. The tentative justification of this arrangement was based on the high heat capacity of the metal. It appeared that the metal would absorb the heat given off by the core and act as a buffer between the core and the insulation. The results of a run testing this idea sharply revealed the justification of this arrangement which sharply pointed a lower battery life than the standard as shown in Figure 30. The reason for this result is that the metal layer is essentially an addition of heat absorbed to the core itself in the sense that there is no heat generation associated with it which only serves to increase the heat transfer away and hence the rate of heat loss from the core to the insulation.

4. Effect of Various Insulation Arrangements on Core Temperature

The following comparison film of the various ideas and metal layers discussed before for the case of the standard battery allowed a more precise simulation of the effect of different insulation arrangements on the life of the battery. The nature of well-known elements used to simulate the insulation system, which in the case of the standard battery is composed of a layer of Tharminox and a layer of asbestos, was described. This allowed for the inclusion of a step-type insulation gradient in the simulation of an actual layer of homogeneous material.



such as Thompson, Figure 22 illustrates this effect on the standard error of the standard battery battery. The results shown in this Figure indicate that the mathematical model was very sensitive to this type of change. The standard battery life was almost doubled as a result of increasing the standard by the use of the model. It should be noted that battery life is a very stringent test for agreement between two vehicle because of the low rate of wearing of the battery which makes small changes in the rate of wearing have a large effect on battery life.

The significant discrepancy between the lives of the two simulations of the standard battery is believed to be a consequence of the assumptions of the model. The heat transfer coefficients utilized in the model are estimated on the basis of the thermal conductance of the two adjacent elements. The introduction of extra non-thermal elements reduces the thickness of the element in contact with the wire and raises the value of the conduction coefficient more dependent on the wire. Therefore, to a some it may be stated that increasing the number of insulation elements decreases the relative approximation of the wire results. Since in this case, the wire was being represented by only one element already having by far the greatest volume of all the elements present, the intended improvement in the simulation of the standard battery, actually resulted in a poorer approximation.

In spite of this disagreement between the two simulations of the standard battery, a valid qualitative comparison between different

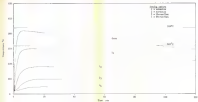


Figure 10: Response of a system to a step change in input for different values of a parameter.

location arrangements should exist along, of course, the age gradient as the basis for the sequence. Figure 11 shows the effect of interchanging the relative and Thermitic input to be distributed in the life of the binary. Figure 12 shows that a slight increase in binary life is obtained when these inputs of Thermitic and only one other input of substance are utilized. This results influence the desirability of having as much Thermitic as possible offshoot in the time. Figure 13 illustrates the starting arrangement which results as a consequence of the data in Figure 14, this is, in all Thermitic individuals. In comparison with this Figure 14 should be noted that, although it profiles the longest life of all the arrangements listed, the sequence of the practical life is clearly in disagreement with the trend established in the preceding figures. The reason for this is probably experimental error in setting the correct proportions in the testing itself, and the fact that this particular experiment was carried out on a different material which means that all the potentialities had to be set, in regard to the other three arrangements which were run on the test day. For these runs only a few parameters had to be changed to effect the selection of a particular location arrangement.

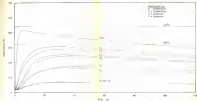


Figure 10. Water uptake curves for various materials under the following conditions: 1.0% (solid line), 2.0% (dashed line), 3.0% (dotted line), 4.0% (dash-dot line), 5.0% (long-dashed line), 6.0% (short-dashed line), 7.0% (solid line with dots), 8.0% (solid line with crosses), 9.0% (solid line with triangles), 10.0% (solid line with squares).

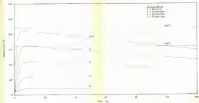


Figure 10. Dependence of the normalized maximum magnetic field ($B_{\max}/B_0$) on the normalized time (t/τ_0) for different values of the parameter α .

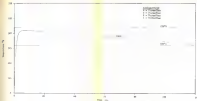


Figure 10. Temperature dependence of the rate constant k for the reaction of NO with O₃ (Arrhenius and Eyring equations).

CHAPTER 7

ENDING CHAPTER MODEL III

8. Description of the Model

The digital computer model which was programmed on the IBM 704 computer was that of a multi-layered sphere consisting of a multi-layered spherical core surrounded by a core skin in which heat conduction is considered. This, in turn, is surrounded by spherical shells of lamellar skin, and the whole is immersed in an infinite heat sink. This particular physical model was arrived at after careful consideration of the nature of the two existing computer models and the requirements of the problem.

One important factor in the use of the digital computer for solution of problems of this type is the nature of the convergence of the approximate (digital) solution to the exact one. If this factor is considered together with the dimensionality of the problem, that is, the number of dimensions involved in the partial differential equation, it may be seen that the nature of effect (time and/or space) converging to solution or constant solution, i.e., asymptotic approach of the digital computer solution to the exact one, becomes particularly important. Simplifying assumptions must accordingly be made which will lead to a solution on the computer, or reasonable answer, and at the same time maintain enough characteristics of the physical model so that the results may be meaningful.

The results of the analog computer study on Model II is shown

circular cylinder with a height equal to the diameter) indicated that the temperature difference between cylinder points is very low indeed; furthermore, it is essentially negligible. In view of these results it appears, then, that the dissiminating can be treated assuming spherical symmetry without seriously reducing the generality. The choice of a spherical model reduces the partial differential equation to one containing a single spatial variable and time.

The assumption of a homogeneous thermally isolated battery, it was desired to place the greater emphasis in the study of the temperature variations and configurations as these affect battery life. It should be noted that the period during which the battery is hot enough for operation requires that the electrolyte contained in the cells be in a molten state. Furthermore, during action during this period a serious non-uniformity in reaction exists with low inherent ionic agitation which contributes to corrosion heat transfer within the cell. These two facts, together with the very high thermal conductivity of the molten electrolyte, suggest that the temperature gradient in any dimension within the cells must be very small. However, since the case is only of cylindrical disks of low perimeter and radius, and the heat generation in the cells can be very nearly the same temperature where they flow (as verified by experiment), the temperature of most of the case should be essentially independent of position and be dependent on time only. On the other hand, the heat generation in the case provides a significant resistance to heat transfer and within the walls, in the region near the inner-insulator interface, a significant temperature gradient would

be repeated. The foregoing considerations suggested that the core could be subjected to control of its position, at least well-defined position where the temperature was a function of time only, and to outer position consisting of a film whose temperature gradient existed. This film concept is applied to all the computations of convective heat transfer which take use of relations such as Newton's cooling law.

The preceding discussion indicates that it would be desirable in studies heat transfer film the case of the simulation by transfer that a well-defined channel through a boundary film where heat conduction would be the heat transfer mechanism. The position of controlling the thickness of this film is a very difficult one, especially from the practical viewpoint. On the other hand, if the film thickness is used as the simulation parameter, it would be adjusted in such a manner that the performance of a standard battery would be approximated very closely by the mathematical simulation, provided that the same values for all other parameters were used.

This model also includes the effect of inlet-outlet heat of reaction, and the impulse-type heat input of the generator in the case:

3. Development of the Mathematical Model

In making a thermal energy balance over a spherical shell of thickness Δr within the volume, the following relations can be obtained

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{Thermal energy in} & 4\pi r^2 q_{r-1} \\ \text{at } t & \end{array} \quad (7-4)$$

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{Thermal energy out at} & 4\pi(r+\Delta r)^2 q_{r+1} + \Delta Q \\ \text{at } t+\Delta t & \end{array} \quad (7-5)$$

$$\text{thermal energy generated} = \text{im}^2 \Delta T \Delta t \quad (7-1)$$

$$\text{dissipation} = \text{im}^2 \left(\frac{1}{\rho_p} \right) \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} \quad (7-2)$$

The thermal energy balance equation states that

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \text{rate of} & & \text{rate of} & & \text{rate of} & & \text{rate of} \\ \text{thermal} & + & \text{thermal} & + & \text{thermal energy} & = & \text{thermal} \\ \text{energy in} & & \text{energy out} & & \text{generation} & & \text{dissipation} \end{array} \quad (7-3)$$

If equations (7-1) to (7-4) are substituted into equation (7-3) and one takes the limit as Δt approaches zero, the following relation results

$$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} = \frac{\text{lim}}{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{\text{im}^2}{\rho_p} \right) \frac{\left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} \right)_p + \Delta t}{\text{im}^2 \Delta t \left(\frac{1}{\rho_p} \right)} = \text{im}^2 \left(\frac{1}{\rho_p} \right) \quad (7-5)$$

hence

$$\left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\frac{r^2}{2} \right) \left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial r} \right)_r + \Delta t \quad (7-6)$$

and since

$$\left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} \right) = -\alpha_p \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial r^2} \quad (7-7)$$

equation (7-6) becomes

$$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} = \alpha \left[\left(\frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial r^2} \right) + \frac{1}{r} \left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial r} \right) \right] + \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} \quad (7-8)$$

where α is the temperature, t is the time, r is the radius and α is the thermal diffusivity, $\frac{1}{\rho_p} (k_p)$.

The mechanical model describing the temperature distribution in a composite sphere consisting of a spherical central core having internal heat generation surrounded by concentric spherical layers of

different numerically, takes the following form:

for $k_1 \in k_2$

$$\frac{\partial x_1}{\partial t} = x_1 \left[\left(\frac{\partial^2 x_2}{\partial t^2} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial x_2}{\partial t} \right) \right] - \frac{\partial x_1 \partial x_2}{\partial t} \quad (9-10)$$

$$\text{or} \quad x = k_1, \quad \dot{x} = \dot{k}_1 \quad \text{and} \quad k_1 \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial t} = k_1 \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial t} \quad (9-11)$$

for $k_1 \in \dot{x} + k_2$

$$\frac{\partial x_1}{\partial t} = x_1 \left[\left(\frac{\partial^2 x_2}{\partial t^2} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial x_2}{\partial t} \right) \right] \quad (9-12)$$

$$\text{or} \quad x = k_1, \quad \dot{x}_2 = \dot{k}_2 \quad \text{and} \quad k_1 \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial t} = k_1 \frac{\partial x_1}{\partial t} \quad (9-13)$$

for $k_1 \in \dot{x} + \dot{k}_2$

$$\frac{\partial x_1}{\partial t} = x_1 \left[\left(\frac{\partial^2 x_2}{\partial t^2} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial x_2}{\partial t} \right) \right] \quad (9-14)$$

$$\text{or} \quad x = k_1, \quad \dot{x}_2 = \dot{k}_2 \quad (9-15)$$

In equations (9-10) through (9-15) the subscripts refer to Figure 8b.

The above equations serve to describe the continuous behavior of all of the elements in the system except the well-known motion of the temperature rate. Since within this system, the temperature at any instant in time is constant throughout the elements, the equation describing heat transfer in that element is an ordinary, rather than a partial, differential equation. The form of this equation will be clearer when the finite difference form of the system of equations is presented.



Figure 10 Schematic Diagram of Battery Described by Table 12.

4. Finite-Difference Approximation

The partial derivatives which appear in equations (7-15) to (7-17) can be approximated by finite-difference equations using Taylor's series. In the present case, $T = T(x, t)$, the $T(x, t)$ can be expanded about x for a fixed value of t as follows (14):

$$T(x + \Delta x, t) = T(x, t) + \Delta x \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} + \frac{\Delta x^2}{2!} \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\Delta x^3}{3!} \frac{\partial^3 T}{\partial x^3} + \dots \quad (7-18)$$

The function $T(x, t)$ can also be expanded as follows:

$$T(x, t + \Delta t) = T(x, t) + \Delta t \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + \frac{\Delta t^2}{2!} \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial t^2} + \frac{\Delta t^3}{3!} \frac{\partial^3 T}{\partial t^3} + \dots \quad (7-19)$$

If equations (7-18) and (7-19) are subtracted and terms of the order of $(\Delta x)^3$ are neglected, an approximation of (7-15) is given by

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} = \frac{T(x + \Delta x, t) - T(x - \Delta x, t)}{2\Delta x} \quad (7-20)$$

If equations (7-18) and (7-19) are added and terms of the order of $(\Delta t)^3$ are neglected an approximation of (7-16) is found to be

$$\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} = \frac{T(x + \Delta x, t) + T(x - \Delta x, t) - 2T(x, t)}{(\Delta x)^2} \quad (7-21)$$

5. Derivation of the Finite-Difference Model

The elements of the idealized spherical thermal battery can be divided into a finite number of sections by dividing the radius into finite increments. Within one of the insulation elements, equations (7-20), (7-21), etc., would take the following form:

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{\Delta x} \left[\frac{T_{i+1}(t) - T_{i-1}(t)}{2\Delta x} + \frac{T_{i+1}(t) - T_{i-1}(t)}{2} \right] \quad (7-22)$$

where ϵ is the element number and $k_{m+1/2} = \epsilon \tau / \Delta x$. This equation applies to all the points within transition elements if the ϵ corresponding to each element is used.

At the interface points the above equation does not hold because the derivatives would be approximated by points on both sides of the interface, but, since a discontinuity in the temperature profile exists at the interface point, the procedure would not be valid. The equivalent to finding the heat transfer at the interface points are the boundary conditions listed in equations (7-10), (7-11), etc. Since these equations involve a first partial derivative, it is necessary to approximate it with the appropriate finite-difference equation.

Equation (7-11) cannot be used because it is based on the assumption that the derivative exists from point $j-1$ through point $j+1$. However, for an interface point j the derivative exists up to point j from the element on the left and up to point j from the element on the right. Therefore, the left derivative can be approximated by

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} = \frac{T_j - T_{j-1}}{\Delta x_j} \quad (7-12)$$

and the equation on the right can be expressed similarly. Hence, the equation at an interface point takes the following form:

$$h_{m+1/2} \frac{T_j - T_{j-1}}{\Delta x_j} = h_{m+1/2} \frac{T_{j+1} - T_j}{\Delta x_{j+1}} \quad (7-13)$$

This equation can be solved for T_j as a function of T_{j-1} and T_{j+1} , which are functions of time of the form given in equation (7-17).

The heat generation term, the last term of equation (7-11) is not affected by the differencing technique since it does not require

car diffusion. Therefore, it is not included in the Klein difference form of the spectra. The form of the AB term is an expected sharp function of time.

Another important assumption which is made in all these models is the consideration of the battery as being in contact with a perfect heat sink. In this model, this assumption allows the form of the boundary condition at the surface of the external element of the battery. Since that interface is in contact with a material whose temperature does not change with time, and the thermal conductivity is essentially infinite, the temperature at that interface must remain constant and hence the time derivative at that point is zero. The heat transfer process in the well-insulated portion of the wire requires a particular analysis. Since the temperature within this sphere is a function of time only, a heat balance in the sphere can be expressed in Klein difference form as

$$V_A \rho_m \frac{dT_A}{dt} = V_A \rho \frac{T_A - T_0}{R_{th}} + iR_{th} V_A \quad (7-13)$$

$$\text{and} \quad V_A = V_0 \quad (7-14)$$

where V_A is the volume of element A. These equations with their corresponding constants were programmed as the 1977 adaptation of the 1980 program.

The model programmed described the heat transfer in the wire which included a well-insulated portion where the temperature was a function of time only, and an outer section at the wire lead connections which was isolated. In both sections of the wire, the heat generation rate which simulates the heat given off by the generator and the battery(s)

selected variables was included. For other elements were included which are believed to produce different values of resistance, density, thermal conductivity and heat capacity. The program was modified during the investigation to include the feature that any one of the "variable" elements (all the elements except the ones) may be assigned to produce best predictive capabilities. This modification permitted the simulation of a battery whose best parameters might be used in place of actual modeling materials in order to provide some hint to the battery, and thus improve its performance. This paper will be discussed more fully in the Symposium on Results.

3. The ADP Program

The ADP program is an extension of the Adams-Moulton-Bull (AM) routine programmed at the University of Florida by Bulirsch, Neugebauer and Day as a package of PIVOT subprograms. ADP has the unique advantage of automatic truncation error control of truncation error without requiring any special procedure for control due to change in truncation error.

ADP requires that the problem be stated as a set of third-order ordinary differential equations with initial conditions specified. In this case, the system of partial differential equations was approximated by ordinary differential equations using appropriate differencing techniques.

The general problem for which the ADP program was designed consists of solving sets of equations of the form

$$\frac{dy_i}{dt} = f(y_i, t) \quad (1-11)$$

Immediately, techniques such as Simpson's rule or the compensated rule must be discarded because y_1 appears on the right hand side of the equation. The standard constant Lagrange method is Euler's method which can be extended by introducing the concept of predictor and correction. This is known as the modified Euler method. A number of predictor-corrector methods have been devised based on Runge's interpolation formula. Those which predict from point x to point $x+h$ and based on derivatives at point x and preceding points, and which correct the new interval using the derivative at point $x+h$, carry the name Adams-Bashforth. Because of stability considerations and the possibility of error control, the Adams-Bashforth method is the least suitable constant Lagrange procedure.

While CMC has developed similar equations which have been shown to be unstable, the possibility of instability seems to be negligible for certain computations. The Runge-Kutta-4th order [11] has the advantage of requiring no history points, but error control is a significant problem in this method. The constant Lagrange equations are more thoroughly discussed in standard numerical analysis texts [10, 12].

The Adams-Bashforth-5th order method is a divided difference technique based on Runge's interpolation formula and is an extension by itself [13] of the Adams-Bashforth constant Lagrange method to a non-constant Lagrange method. The advantage of the method can be appreciated when simulating error control is required with the results of frequent changes in interval size. A method requiring constant interval sizes must

generate new starting points after each change in interval size, choose a value which can allow convenient comparisons are achieved after a change of interval size without interruption.

The main program consists of a main program and eleven subprograms, five of which contain techniques for all portions of the general type discussed. The other five subprograms are called *INIT* and *END*, and they contain the information which is specific to each problem, such as the particular form of the differential equations involved and the specification of the input and output requirements of the problem. The program listings used in this study are shown in Appendix B (26).

7. Description of Results

The digital computer program was subjected to two final tests by studying the simulation of a physical model for which an analytical solution can be obtained readily. This model consisted of a homogeneous sphere having a uniform initial temperature of 10^4 °K everywhere except at its surface, where the initial temperature was 0°K. The analytical and computed temperature profiles are shown in Figure 8-1. It may be seen that, with 25 subintervals required describing the system, the computed and analytical results agreed within 1% up to values of time of 10 periods. It was observed that the computed results always predicted a lower temperature than the exact solution, and that the difference between the two solutions increased with time. On the other hand, it should be pointed out that the computer program was not ideally suited to simulate the temperature sphere

total because it was developed to simulate a homogeneous system having a well-defined surface in the axis where no radial temperature gradients exist. Therefore, a number of changes had to be made in the logic that is used to adapt the program to the homogeneous system model, such as removing the radius of the well-defined surface of the core to be zero and assuming all of the fissionable layers to be composed of the same material. This assumption produces an inherent loss of precision due to the fact that at each interface point in the model, the equation describing the heat transfer process in the surrounding boundary medium becomes different for successively different materials, whereas in the case of a homogeneous system the same problem equation involving the second partial derivative could be used. In view of the above factors, the agreement between the approximate and exact solutions can be considered quite satisfactory.

Figure 8-1 also illustrates the effect of geometry on the behavior of the homogeneous system. The figure shows a temperature profile of the homogeneous system after 50 seconds, and the initial prior temperature curve after 50 seconds of homogeneous right circular cylinders having equal height and diameter, and having (I) a radius and (II) a volume equal to those of the sphere. The comparison of the cylinders was calculated from the tables for 1000 and 10000 (XX). It should be noted that the sphere is a more efficient heat conductor than the cylinders having equal volume owing to the smaller area to volume ratio of the former, and that the center temperatures of these two solids differ by only approximately ten per cent after 50 seconds. This may be consid-

need another justification for the assumption of spherical symmetry in the calculation of thermal histories especially because there remains a very sharp surface temperature gradient (the glass material is pure heat conduction solid, being in the solid state of the electrochemical cells and so the heat conduction within them).

1) Simulation of the Standard Thermal History

In this model a different approach was used to the history than had been used in the two cooling models. In the cooling models, the thermal properties of the materials constituting the battery were incorporated into the model and the values predicted for the bulk of the thermal history was accepted. In the case of the spherical model studied in this digital computer, as a consequence of the assumption of a uniform section in the case where no temperature gradients are known or unknown to heat transfer solid, and of a film in the case where the thermal resistance of the wire is unaccounted, no unknown parameter, namely the thermal resistance of the film, need be considered. It has been pointed out by (1) that this is the proper approach in analysis of corrosion heat transfer.

The amount of effort involved in obtaining a very precise solution of the mathematical model under consideration would be prohibitive because of the numerous different calculations that had to be considered for the purpose of design optimization. In any case, a high degree of accuracy would not be justified because the notion of spherical symmetry was only an approximation of a history.

In view of the above considerations it was decided to obtain the

arbitrary parameter in such a manner that a feasible model would yield results very similar to those given by a standard battery. Specifically, the life of the standard thermal battery at least eight temperatures of 10°C was consistently seen to be 20 seconds.

In the beginning of the investigation, it appeared that there were two arbitrary parameters which resulted from the assumption of a finite film in the core, the thickness of the film and the thermal conductivity of the film. A number of calculations involving different values of these two parameters indicated that within the range of values tested, the time required was obtained for different values of thickness and thermal conductivity of the film if their ratio was the same. This result indicated that essentially only a single thermal resistance parameter had to be chosen arbitrarily.

The form of the heat generation term was chosen to be an exponential decay which would allow the core reach 400°K in approximately 0.1 seconds and of such a magnitude that the total heat generated would be equal to the heat given off by the equivalent number of heat generators in the core as determined from calorimetric measurements. The value of the integrated heat generation was established to be 50% of the total heat generated by the heat generators. It was again given a triangular form with the maximum heat generation being reached after 10 seconds. The values of the parameters used in the simulation of the standard battery are listed in Table 8-1.

This simulation was executed using 10 grid points. The temperature profiles in the battery are shown in Figure 11, and the

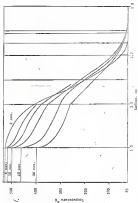


Figure 23 Temperature Profile in Fluidized Bed at Various Bed Heights

temperature history for the core is illustrated in Figure 28. The numerical results are summarized in Table 8. The life of the battery was dependent on the number of grid points used in the calculation, but since the deviation from the exact solution was estimated to be of about 10%, the number of 20 grid points was chosen in order to keep the problem within the limits of economic feasibility. The disk rotations are chosen so that with this number of points the life of the standard battery would coincide with the optimally selected life, i.e., 20 months. As will be discussed later, the data proved to be very satisfactory when used in evaluating battery performance under other conditions because it predicted life above 400% which agreed reasonably well with experimental results under these conditions.

8. Effect of Ignoring Insulation Arrangements on Life Estimation

The experience gained from the cooling study greatly reduced the range of possible insulation arrangements which might have yielded an improved battery performance. The alternative insulation structures proved to be the optimum available (insulating material). The results of this and other insulation arrangements are shown in Figure 29. Table 9 shows that a slight increase in battery life may be obtained if Thermax only is used instead of the Thermax/Insulation structure. In the other hand, the use of an alternative insulation is seen to be considerably worse than both the standard and the optimum. Reflecting on idealized material having the strange properties of equal values of Thermax and adiabatic, which are considered "idealized", also showed a decrease in battery life compared to the standard. In short,

TABLE 5

IMPACT OF PARAMETERS AND CHOICE OF LIFE
IN CHOICE OF A SIMULATED THERMAL HISTORY

Exp. No.	Assumptions	Life at Test Rate temperature of 10°C. sec.	$\frac{L_{10}^{\text{Test}}}{L_{10}^{\text{Life}}}$
22	Standard (Thermofluorization factor of 100-1 (Sec))	28.8	1.40
23	All Fluorination	28.8	1.40
24	All Activation	28.8	0.84
25	Isotaxial/Fluorination	27.8	0.77
26	All Heterotaxiality (See Table 4a)	28.8	0.80
27	$\mu = 0.100$, $\sigma_p = 0.001$, $\sigma = 0.000$	27.8	1.70
28	$\mu = 0.100$, $\sigma_p = 0.000$, $\sigma = 0.000$	28.8	0.80
29	$\mu = 0.100$, $\sigma_p = 0.000$, $\sigma = 0.000$	28.8	0.84
30	$\mu = 0.100$, $\sigma_p = 0.000$, $\sigma = 0.000$	28.8	0.80
31	$\mu = 0.100$, $\sigma_p = 0.000$, $\sigma = 0.000$	28.8	0.80
32	$\mu = 0.100$, $\sigma_p = 0.000$, $\sigma = 0.000$	28.8	0.80

TABLE 5 (Continued)

Sub-Model	Description	L20 vs. Best Model Temperature at 20°C, °C	$\frac{\Delta \text{AICc}}{\Delta \text{AICc}_{\text{best}}}$
36	Ratio of Days = 1.40 All-Description	25.9	1.00
37	Ratio of Days = 1.40 All-Description	26.4	1.00
38	90 (Days-Ball) Term Description	23.9	0.05
39	90 = 900 (Days-Ball Ball) Term Description	23.9	1.15
40	$\mu_{\text{B}} \frac{\sigma_{\text{B}}}{1 + \sigma_{\text{B}}} = 90$	26.9	1.05
41	$\mu_{\text{B}} \frac{\sigma_{\text{B}}}{1 + \sigma_{\text{B}}} = 90$	43.9	1.00
42	$\mu_{\text{B}} \frac{\sigma_{\text{B}}}{1 + \sigma_{\text{B}}} = 90$, $\sigma_{\text{B}} = 90$ All-Description	47.9	1.10
43	Parameter Outside Thermoflex (20 sec delay)	26.9	1.01
44	Parameter Outside Thermoflex (2 sec delay)	Peak Temp Too High	-
45	Parameter $\frac{1}{\sigma_{\text{B}}} \frac{\sigma_{\text{B}}}{1 + \sigma_{\text{B}}} = 90$ Outside Thermoflex (2 sec delay)	40.9	1.00
46	Parameter $\frac{1}{\sigma_{\text{B}}} \frac{\sigma_{\text{B}}}{1 + \sigma_{\text{B}}} = 90$ Outside Activation (2 sec delay)	40.9	1.11
47	Peak Diameter history	100.0	0.01

+ X = minus standard value of parameter being varied

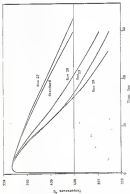


Figure 10 Effect of Cold Temperature on Rate of Polymerization

From the standpoint of heat transfer, silver fiber insulation is less effective than a layer of Thermoflex surrounded by layers of less effective insulation. Arranging the order of the Thermoflex and asbestos layers in the standard battery yielded a lower battery life than the standard. All of the above findings are consistent among themselves, and they substantiate the finding that in all-Thermoflex insulation should give the optimum performance among the available insulating materials.

3. Effect of Insulated Enclosure Relative to the Self-Temperature

The investigation of the response of battery performance to insulating materials having arbitrary idealized properties was probably the most interesting aspect of the work and probably the most constructive development from a scientific standpoint. A matter of considerable interest was thermal expansion equal to real materials and having other desirable properties were assumed to offer to find the effect on battery life of the permeability of the system.

It was found that the arbitrary way in which the equilibrium criterion was defined, namely life above 400°C , greatly affected the choice of an optimum idealized insulator. It is believed, and the results shown in Figure 10 seem to confirm it, that the insulation with the lowest thermal diffusivity will yield the longest life above the test sink temperature, however, if the sink above 400°C is considered the criterion, then it is seen that for the silver-catalyzed insulation having low thermal diffusivity will produce a shorter battery life than an insulator having a high thermal diffusivity if both have the same

thermal conductivity. This result can be explained in the following manner: When a high on-off temperature is chosen as the criterion for battery life, the initial activities of heat transfer become very significant. This is illustrated in Figure 12 where the temperature at a point in the insulation close to the wire is seen to be greater for insulation with a low heat capacity than for insulation with a high heat capacity if both scenarios have the same thermal conductivity, and the same initial temperature difference exists between the point in the insulation and the wire. The highest temperature of the junction close with the low heat capacity produces a smaller temperature gradient between this point and the wire, thus reducing the rate of heat loss from the wire. It should be noted that in this scenario, the junction close with the lower heat capacity acts more rapidly, and therefore, if the on-off temperature is chosen low enough, the life of the on-off temperature will eventually be longer for the material having the higher heat capacity. It was noted that, if the thermal efficiency were to be raised by reducing the thermal conductivity while the density and heat capacity are kept constant, then the battery life is dependent logarithm of the critical temperature.

4. Effect of Core Section on Core Temperature

The effect of changing the radius of the wire on the life of the battery was tested and the results are shown in Figure 13. These results indicate that, though arrived at surprisingly, the radius of the wire had already been optimized in the standard thermal battery. Battery lives lower than that of the standard were obtained for radii of the

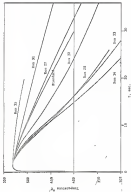


Figure 20 Effect on full temperature of distilled charges on the thermal properties of the insulation.

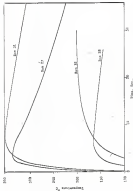


Figure 10 Effect on Isocyanate Temperature of Isocyanate Groups to Various Temperatures of the Substrate

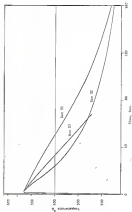


Figure 10 Effect on Rate Temperature of Different Initiator Concentrations

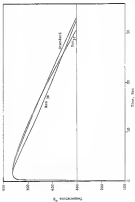


Figure 10 Effect of Cell Temperature of Charge on Case (a)

was both greater and smaller than the constant core radius.

5. Effect of Internal Heat Generation

The effect of the internal heat generation on the life of the battery was shown to be a significant one. Figure 13 indicates that the wide band of internal heat generation profiles along a 50% decrease in battery life. This figure also shows that another 50% decrease could be gained if heating sources existing within the heat of reaction of the standard system could be utilized.

6. Effect of Fuel Stack Temperature on Core Temperature

Figure 14 illustrates the effect on the core temperature of a change in the temperature of the constant heat sink. The low temperature of -40°F reduces the battery life by 50% while the high temperature of 200°F produces an increase in battery life of about 50% relative, of course, to the life of the standard battery at a heat sink temperature of 40°F . These figures including the values obtained for the peak temperatures, are in very close agreement with experimental values obtained under these conditions.

7. Effect of Change in the Heat Capacity of the Heat Sink on the Core Temperature

The effect of increasing the heat capacity of the heat generator was considered a feasible and reasonable possibility because it provided a larger quantity of heat in the core without increasing the peak temperature. It was noted that this change in the heat capacity of the generator did not affect the value for the thermal conductivity of the core. The results are shown in Figure 15. They indicate that

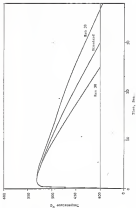


Figure 22 Effect on Cell Temperature of Change in the Inter-cell Heat Generation

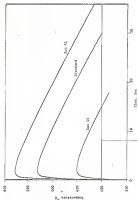


Figure 24 Effect of GDT Temperature of the Heat Sink Temperature

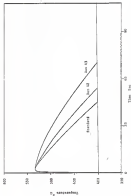


Figure 10 Effect on Cold Temperature of Change in the Heat Capacity of the Heat Separator

an increase of 50% above the life of the standard battery could be obtained by doubling the heat capacity (or the density) of the heat generator, and that an increase of 50% could be accomplished if it could be made split.

4. Heat Generation of Standard Standard Battery

Figure 16 illustrates the effect that some feasible design improvements could have on the life of the battery. It was assumed that an all-thermionic type could be used, that an electrochemical system could be developed which could yield twice the life-time heat generation of the standard battery, and that the density or heat capacity of the heat generator could be doubled. The results indicate that an increase in battery life of about 50% could be obtained.

5. Effect of Core Temperature of Delayed Heat Generation Within the Insulator

The effect of delayed heat generation within the insulation was found to be very beneficial to battery life. Figure 17 indicates that in some arrangements of this type, the life of the battery could be doubled. This design appears to be more difficult to implement than a design sketched out that was suggested before. The main difficulty appears to be in the manner in which the delayed heat generation is to be achieved. It was found that annular and heat generators could not be placed in sufficient contact with the core because their operation would increase the temperature of the core above the upper limit. Plating a layer of Manganese of about 1 cm in thickness between the core and the heat generator seemed to prevent the core temperature from rising too high and at the same time provided good insulation for the

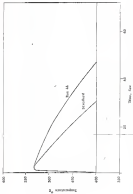


Figure 11. Heated and Cooled Temperatures of Insulated Body Experiments



Figure 17 Effect of Cell Temperature of Deformed Steel Reinforcement on the Temperature-Strain Relationship

case, thus increasing the life of battery considerably.

14. Effect of Change in the Volume of the Battery on Heat Development

The effect of a change in the volume of the battery on the rate temperature rise through an important part of the internal heat model.

Figure 10 illustrates the reaction which again can be described qualitatively with mathematical characteristics. It should be noted that an increase in the volume of the battery does not change the peak

temperature appreciably but it reduces the rate of temperature rise very considerably. This is a consequence of the volume depending on the third power of the radius while the area increases only as the square of the radius. Therefore, the total amount of heat generated will increase more rapidly (about 16 to 20 times per unit volume) than the increase in the rate of heat loss (which is proportional to the area).

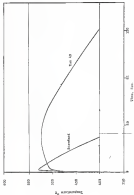


Figure 10 Effect on full temperature change in the volume of the battery

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The objectives of this work were to provide temperature indication for specific locations within a standard thermal battery and to study the effect of changing the construction configuration and proportion of the collector on its optimum battery life and to understand the effects that these changes produce. It was concluded that the existing computer models provided an adequate representation of thermal indication for drawing qualitative conclusions. They also provided very useful insight into the heat transfer processes that occur in a battery, and this was quite valuable for the development of the digital computer model.

The digital model was a more complete representation of a standard battery than were the existing models, and it provided more complex configurations to be simulated.

The results of this investigation indicate that some gain in battery life could be effected if an all-thermion insulation were used instead of the standard Thermion-adsorbent configuration. It was concluded that the ratio of area relative to insulation volume in the standard battery studied was essentially optimum. The results also indicated the desirability of developing systems which would have higher form-factor standard heat generation than the one used in the standard battery. Heat generators having a higher thermal conductivity or density than the standard were shown to be beneficial in battery life.

An examination of the working portion of the temperature characteristics shows that battery life could be extended considerably if electrochemical systems could be developed which would operate in a sodium-vacuum below 400°K . It was also shown that placement of heat generators in the gas-jet/beam section surrounding the cell could provide a delayed heat input to the assembly and substantially increase life, but this improvement may not be feasible at this time because of difficulty in controlling the time delay of the heat generator ignition.

It was further concluded that the choice of a cut-off temperature of 400°K as the criterion for battery life strongly influenced the choice of an optimum thermal insulation. For an arbitrary cut-off temperature there exists an ideal insulator which should have the lowest possible thermal conductivity and value of density and heat capacity which should be low if the cut-off temperature is high and high if the cut-off temperature is low. It should be noted that the lowest value of thermal conductivity for the insulation does not yield the maximum life above 400°K .

LIST OF SYMBOLS

A	area, m^2
A	heat sink temperature, $^{\circ}K$
C	temperature of the wire, $^{\circ}K$
d_s	heat capacity, $\frac{dQ}{dT}$
D	defined by equation III-4, characteristic factor in allow for interaction between gray surfaces
$\bar{D}$	characteristic factor in allow for interchange between black surfaces
d	defined by equation III-2
h	height of element, m
H	radiation-convective heat transfer coefficient, $\frac{dQ}{dA dT} \frac{1}{K}$
K	thermal conductivity, $\frac{dQ}{dA dT} \frac{m}{sec}$
L	temperature of internal insulation, $^{\circ}K$
q	rate of heat transfer, $\frac{dQ}{dt}$
Q	rate of heat transfer
R	radius of element, m
r	height of internal insulation, m
t	time, sec.
T	temperature of element, $^{\circ}K$
V	volume, m^3

Greek letters

α	thermal diffusivity
β	defined by equation C-2

graph-structure-functions()

c country, characterclass
d density, g/cm³
m material-mass-density

instances

a value in the last slot
a value in the last slot
a value in the cell, or in the cell
g value in the generator
i value in the iteration or in the i^{th} element
j value in the j^{th} element
l value in listval
l value in listval
m value in middle, i.e., eg value in middle generators
r value in radius
r value in radius
s value in sep
s value in sep
1 value in channel vector 1
2 value in channel vector 2
3 value in channel vector 3
4 value in channel vector 4

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APPENDIX 4

TABLE OF STARS USED

ADDITION OF NEW STARS TO COEFFICIENTS

The following basic transfer coefficients yield the values for the particular satellites listed in Table 1 based on the data given in Table 2:

$$\begin{aligned}k_{11-11} &= \left[\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{\cos i} \frac{\partial \dot{\lambda}_{11}^{(2)}}{\partial \dot{\lambda}_1} \right]^{-1} = 2.30925 \\k_{11-14} &= \left[\frac{2.44}{\pi} \frac{1}{\cos i} + \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{\cos i} \frac{\partial \dot{\lambda}_{11}^{(2)}}{\partial \dot{\lambda}_1} \right]^{-1} = 2.30925 \\k_{11-9} &= \left[\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{\cos i} \frac{\partial \dot{\lambda}_{11}^{(2)}}{\partial \dot{\lambda}_1} + \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{\cos i} \frac{\partial \dot{\lambda}_1}{\partial \dot{\lambda}_1} \right]^{-1} = 2.30925 \\k_{11-12} &= \left[\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{\cos i} \frac{\partial \dot{\lambda}_{11}^{(2)}}{\partial \dot{\lambda}_1} + \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{\cos i} \frac{\partial \dot{\lambda}_1}{\partial \dot{\lambda}_1} \right]^{-1} = 2.30925 \\k_{11-1} &= \left[\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{\cos i} \frac{\partial \dot{\lambda}_1}{\partial \dot{\lambda}_1} + \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{\cos i} \frac{\partial \dot{\lambda}_1}{\partial \dot{\lambda}_1} \right]^{-1} = 2.30925 \\k_{11-12} &= \left[\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{\cos i} \frac{\partial \dot{\lambda}_{11}^{(2)}}{\partial \dot{\lambda}_1} + \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{1}{\cos i} \frac{\partial \dot{\lambda}_1}{\partial \dot{\lambda}_1} \right]^{-1} = 2.30925 \\k_{11-11} &= k_{11-11}\end{aligned}$$

Note: The value of 2.44 is the cosine of the angle having an area equal to one-half of the circle whose radius is 1.50.

TABLE A-1

SUMMARY OF DATA

Ref. No.	Assumptions	Results
1	Standard	Tabulated in Table 2; shown in Figures 5, 6 and 7
2	$k_1 = 1.0 \times 10^3$	Tabulated in Table 2; shown in Figure 8
3	$k_1 = 1.05$	tabulated in Table 2; shown in Figure 9
4	$k_{11} = 10$	tabulated in Table 2; shown in Figure 10
5	$k_{10} = 10$	tabulated in Table 2; shown in Figure 11
6	$k_1 = 10, k_{10} = 1.0 \times 10^3$	Tabulated in Table 2; shown in Figure 12
7	$k_1 = 1.05$	Tabulated in Table 2; shown in Figure 13
8	$k_1 = 1.05$	Tabulated in Table 2; shown in Figure 14
9	$k_1 = 10$	Tabulated in Table 2; shown in Figure 15
10	$\mu_{1/2}^0 = 0.01$	Tabulated in Table 2; shown in Figure 16

Row No.	Description	Results
11	$P_{\text{a}} R_{\text{a}} = 1.25$	tabulated in Table 2, shown in Figure 18
12	Change Magnitude of Inverse- sill. Rate Generation	tabulated in Table 2, shown in Figure 18
13	Change Initial Rate of Inverse-sill. Rate Genera- tion	tabulated in Table 2, shown in Figure 18
14	Change Steady Rate of Inverse-sill. Rate Genera- tion	tabulated in Table 2, shown in Figure 17

TABLE A-1

SUMMARY OF PORTFOLIO-LEVEL RETURNS

Item No.	1	2	3	4	5
Proj. No.					
1	0-001	0-0000	0-004	0-008	0-000
2	0-002	0-001	0-004	0-004	0-004
3	0-004	0-001	0-004	0-004	0-004
4	0-004	0-002	0-004	0-003	0-004
5	0-002	0-002	0-002	0-002	0-002
6	0-001	0-0000	0-0000	0-001	0-001
7	0-0010	0-0010	0-001	0-001	0-0000
8	0-0007	0-000	0-000	0-004	0-000
9	0-004	0-000	0-000	0-004	0-000
10	0-0000	0-0004	0-0004	0-0004	0-0000
11	0-001	0-001	0-001	0-001	0-001
12	0-000	0-000	0-000	0-000	0-000
13	0-001	0-0000	0-0004	0-0007	0-001
14	0-0000	0-0000	0-0004	0-0000	0-0000
15	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
16	0-0004	0-0001	0-0000	0-0000	0-0000
17	0-0000	0-0000	0-0004	0-0000	0-0000
18	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
19	0-0004	0-0001	0-0000	0-0000	0-0000
20	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0000	0-0000
21	0-0004	0-0000	0-0000	0-0000	0-0000
22	0-0000	0-0000	0-0000	0-0000	0-0000
23	0-0001	0-0000	0-0000	0-0000	0-0000
24	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
25	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
26	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
27	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
28	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
29	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
30	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
31	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
32	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
33	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
34	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
35	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
36	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
37	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
38	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
39	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
40	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
41	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
42	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
43	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
44	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
45	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
46	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
47	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
48	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
49	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001
50	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001	0-0001

TABLE A9 (Continued)

Run No.	1	2	3	4	15
Run No.	1	2	3	4	15
1	0.441	0.500	0.500	0.441	0.441
2	0.475	0.500	0.475	0.475	0.475
3	0.498	0.500	0.500	0.498	0.498
4	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
5	0.498	0.49998	0.500	0.4975	0.497
6	0.499	0.49999	0.500	0.4987	0.498
7	0.49944	0.49999	0.50000	0.49858	0.49810
8	0.4997	0.4999	0.4995	0.499	0.499
9	0.4997	0.4999	0.4994	0.499	0.499
10	0.499444	0.49999	0.49945	0.499	0.49944
11	0.499	0.49995	0.4995	0.499	0.499
12	0.499	0.4999	0.499	0.499	0.4999
13	0.499	0.4999	0.499	0.499	0.4999
14	0.499	0.4999	0.499	0.499	0.4999
15	0.499999	0.499999	0.49999	0.49999	0.499999
16	0.50001	0.50000	0.50000	0.50001	0.50001
17	0.50001	0.5000	0.5000	0.50001	0.50000
18	0.50001	0.5000	0.5000	0.50001	0.50000
19	0.50001	0.5000	0.5000	0.50001	0.50000
20	0.50001	0.5000	0.5000	0.50001	0.50000
21	0.50001	0.5000	0.5000	0.5000	0.5000
22	0.50000	0.50000	0.50000	0.50000	0.50000
23	0.50000	0.50000	0.50000	0.50000	0.50000
24	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
25	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
26	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
27	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
28	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
29	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
30	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
31	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
32	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
33	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
34	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
35	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
36	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
37	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
38	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
39	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
40	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
41	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
42	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
43	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
44	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
45	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
46	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
47	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
48	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
49	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
50	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
51	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
52	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
53	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
54	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
55	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
56	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
57	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
58	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
59	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
60	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
61	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
62	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
63	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
64	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
65	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
66	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
67	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
68	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
69	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
70	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
71	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
72	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
73	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
74	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
75	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
76	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
77	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
78	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
79	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
80	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
81	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
82	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
83	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
84	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
85	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
86	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
87	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
88	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
89	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
90	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
91	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
92	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
93	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
94	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
95	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
96	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
97	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
98	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
99	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500
100	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500

TABLE A-1 (Continued)

Year (X ₁)	Y ₁
<u>Index (X₂)</u>	<u> </u>
1	0.001
2	0.001
3	0.001
4	0.004
5	0.004
6	0.003
7	0.0034
8	0.003
9	0.004
10	0.00344
11	0.003
12	0.003
13	0.003
14	0.003
15	0.003
16	0.00344
17	0.00344
18	0.003
19	0.003
20	0.003
21	0.003
22	0.0034
23	0.003
24	0.003
25	0.003
26	0.003
27	0.003
28	0.003
29	0.003
30	0.0034
31	0.003
32	0.003
33	0.003
34	0.003
35	0.003
36	0.003
37	0.003
38	0.003
39	0.003
40	0.003

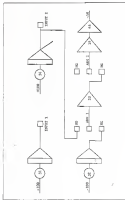


Figure 4-4: Neural Network Structure of a Simple Neural Network

APPENDIX B

RESULTS OF GRADE MODEL 11

AREA AND VOLUME OF THE INSULATION ELEMENT OF MODEL 11

The (total) area and volume of the (top) insulated element assigned to Node 11 can be evaluated by the method of elementary calculus. The equation of the straight line given in Figure 9-12 is

$$x = \frac{b}{(k_2 - k_1)} (z - k_1) \quad (B-1)$$

This line can be rotated around the y axis to yield the shape of the insulation element. The area of the element is given by

$$A_2 = \int_{k_1}^{k_2} dx = \int_{k_1}^{k_2} \frac{b}{(k_2 - k_1)} dz = \int_{k_1}^{k_2} \frac{b dz}{(k_2 - k_1)} \quad (B-2)$$

Therefore, the area is

$$A_2 = \frac{b dz}{(k_2 - k_1)} \frac{k_2^2 - k_1^2}{2} = \frac{b}{2} (k_2 + k_1) \quad (B-3)$$

The volume of a top element is given by

$$V_2 = \int_{k_1}^{k_2} x^2 dz = \int_{k_1}^{k_2} \frac{b^2}{(k_2 - k_1)^2} dz = \int_{k_1}^{k_2} \frac{b^2 dz}{(k_2 - k_1)^2} \quad (B-4)$$

which becomes

$$V_2 = \frac{b^2}{2(k_2 - k_1)^2} (k_2^2 - k_1^2) = \frac{b^2}{2} (k_2 + k_1) + k_1 k_2 + k_1^2 \quad (B-5)$$

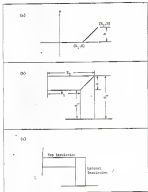


Figure B-2 Details of the Steps of Transition Elements

b.4

The value of a lateral localization element can now be expressed as

$$\tau_L = \frac{\pi b_L}{\lambda} - \frac{\pi b_L^2}{\lambda} \alpha_L^2 + b_L b_T + b_T^2 = \frac{\pi b_L^2}{\lambda} - \alpha_L^2 b_T^2 \quad (2-6)$$

where b_L is defined in Figure 2-9. This expression simplifies to

$$\tau_L = \frac{\pi b_L^2}{\lambda} \alpha_L^2 - b_L b_T + b_T^2 + \pi b_T^2 - b_T^2 \alpha_T^2 \quad (2-7)$$

It should be noted that the dimensions of the model are such that $b_L = b_T$ and $b = b_L = b_T$. When these expressions are substituted into equation (2-7) we obtain

$$\tau_L = \frac{\pi b_L^2 - b_L^2}{\lambda} \alpha_L^2 - b_L b_T + b_T^2 + \pi b_T^2 - b_T^2 \quad (2-8)$$

or

$$\tau_L = \frac{\pi b_L^2 - b_L^2}{\lambda} \alpha_L^2 - (b_L^2 - b_L b_T + b_T^2) + b_T^2 \quad (2-9)$$

which yields upon simplification:

$$\tau_L = \frac{2\pi b_L^2}{\lambda} \alpha_L^2 + b_L b_T + b_T^2 \quad (2-10)$$

Equation (2-10) illustrates the fact that for these dimensions and the model the value of a lateral localization element is twice the value of the corresponding top localization element. This difference does afford a simplification in the calculation of the presentment savings. Furthermore, it relates the number of elements with which a given element of lateral localization may be contrasted. This is illustrated in Figure 2-10 where it is seen that the element of lateral localization is an element adjacent to the form in contrast with the best disk, thus giving a more complicated system of equations.

ESTIMATION OF TREAT TREATMENT DIFFERENCES

The following equations for test statistic coefficients yield the values for the polynomial coefficients listed in Table 4 based on the data given in Table 1.

$$b_0 = 1.40$$

$$\text{Element 1 Root} \quad b_1 = 1.40$$

$$\text{Element 2 Root} \quad b_2 = 1.75$$

$$\text{Element 3 derivative} \quad b_3 = 1.40$$

$$\text{Element 4 derivative} \quad b_4 = 1.20$$

$$b_{100} = b_{100} = \left[\frac{1}{112} \cdot 01 \right]^{-1} = 2.20$$

$$b_{101} = b_{101} = \left[\frac{1}{112} \cdot 01 + \frac{1}{208} \cdot 001 \right]^{-1} = .001$$

$$b_{102} = b_{102} = \left[\frac{1}{208} \cdot 001 + \frac{1}{208} \cdot 01 \right]^{-1} = .001$$

$$b_{103} = b_{103} = \left[\frac{1}{208} \cdot 01 + \frac{1}{208} \cdot 01 \right]^{-1} = .0001$$

$$b_{104} = \left[-\frac{1}{128} \cdot 01 + \frac{1}{128} \cdot 001 \right]^{-1} = .0001$$

$$b_{105} = \left[-\frac{1}{128} (1.100 + 011) \right]^{-1} = .000$$

$$b_{106} = \left[-\frac{1}{128} (1.101 + 011) \right]^{-1} = .000$$

$$b_{107} = \left[-\frac{1}{128} (1.100 + 010) \right]^{-1} = .000$$

$$v_{111} = \left[\frac{1}{2000} + 0.50 + 0.000 \right]^{-1} = 0.002$$

$$v_{112} = \left[\frac{1}{2000} + 0.50 + \frac{1}{2(2000)} \right]^{-1} = 0.001$$

TABLE 3-1

SUMMARY OF DATA

Run No.	Investigation Methods	Location
15	4. Road 2. River 3. Suburban (Standard) 1. Thoroughfare	Suburban in Table 4 shown in Figure 10
16	4. Thoroughfare 2. River 3. Suburban 1. Road	Suburban in Table 4 shown in Figure 10
17	4. Suburban 2. Suburban 3. Thoroughfare (Standard) 1. Thoroughfare	Suburban in Table 4 shown in Figure 10
18	4. Thoroughfare 3. Thoroughfare 2. Suburban 1. Suburban	Suburban in Table 4 shown in Figure 10
19	4. Suburban 2. Thoroughfare 3. Thoroughfare 1. Thoroughfare	Suburban in Table 4 shown in Figure 10
20	4. Thoroughfare 2. Thoroughfare 3. Thoroughfare 1. Thoroughfare	Suburban in Table 4 shown in Figure 10

TABLE 2-3

SUMMARY OF OBSERVATIONAL RESULTS

Run No.	13	14	17	18	19
Test No.					
1	28-12	0-485	1-499	1-487	0-476
4	28-14	1-487	0-132	0-883	0-118
5	1-134	1-487	0-133	1-73	0-100
6	0-044	0-4904	0-00049	0-103	0-10049
7	24-11	0-497	0-187	4-107	4-104
11	28-74	0-785	0-161	1-84	1-48
14	1-131	1-131	0-136	0-14	1-14
15	0-0004	0-0004	0-00004	0-0007	0-0004
7	0-1874	0-184	4-104	0-107	0-104
15	0-188	0-187	1-48	0-148	1-48
14	0-0744	0-131	1-14	0-138	1-14
17	0-40013	0-00013	0-001	0-0007	0-0004
8	1-131	0-184	0-104	0-047	0-104
18	0-131	0-4913	0-13	0-107	1-10
15	0-104	0-0408	1-13	0-178	1-10
16	0-00013	0-0013	0-0044	0-0000	0-0004
7	0-131	0-084	0-011	0-0148	0-113
15	0-40013	0-40013	0-0013	0-0004	0-0013
14	0-00013	0-40013	0-00007	0-0013	0-00047
17	0-00013	0-104	0-100	0-100	0-100
15	24-13	0-107	1-885	1-48	0-110
15	0-484	0-0847	0-0003	0-048	0-0004
18	24-14	1-48	0-118	1-484	0-112
15	0-004	1-13	0-000	1-73	0-111
18	24-13	0-107	0-104	4-10	4-14
15	0-0007	0-0007	0-0004	0-0004	0-000
18	20-74	0-748	0-100	1-14	1-48
17	1-131	1-131	0-131	1-14	1-13
15	0-1008	0-100	4-101	0-107	1-13
18	0-00013	0-1004	0-100	0-0004	0-000
14	0-1004	0-174	1-48	1-14	1-14
14	0-0004	0-111	1-13	0-111	1-14
15	1-131	0-111	1-484	0-111	1-141
15	0-0004	0-0111	0-0004	0-0004	0-0003
14	0-111	0-0111	1-13	0-117	1-13
14	0-111	0-0111	1-13	0-117	1-13

TABLE 1 (Continued)

Run No.	BC
100	0.0000
101	0.0000
102	0.0000
103	0.0000
104	0.0000
105	0.0000
106	0.0000
107	0.0000
108	0.0000
109	0.0000
110	0.0000
111	0.0000
112	0.0000
113	0.0000
114	0.0000
115	0.0000
116	0.0000
117	0.0000
118	0.0000
119	0.0000
120	0.0000
121	0.0000
122	0.0000
123	0.0000
124	0.0000
125	0.0000
126	0.0000
127	0.0000
128	0.0000
129	0.0000
130	0.0000
131	0.0000
132	0.0000
133	0.0000
134	0.0000
135	0.0000
136	0.0000
137	0.0000
138	0.0000
139	0.0000
140	0.0000
141	0.0000
142	0.0000
143	0.0000
144	0.0000
145	0.0000

COMPUTATION OF FIRST ORDER TRANSFER FUNCTION FOR AN INVERTED SLAT CONTROL

Sec. 22 = 5.2 and Sec. 23 = 5.2



The amplifier circuit represents the following function:

$$y = K \frac{d\theta}{dt} \quad (9-11)$$

$$\frac{d\theta}{dt} = \omega \quad (9-12)$$

$$\text{for } \omega = 0 \quad y = 0 \quad (9-13)$$

$$\text{for } \omega = 1 \quad y = 100 \quad (9-14)$$

$$y = 100\omega^{1.0} \quad \text{value} \quad (9-15)$$

$$\text{Thus } 1 \text{ rad/sec} = 100^\circ \quad y = 100\omega^{1.0} \quad (9-16)$$

$$\text{Thus for } 22 = 1 \quad \frac{d\theta}{dt} = \int_0^{100} 100\omega^{1.0} (10 \text{ Sec}) = 10 \cdot 100 \quad (9-17)$$

and hence the total loop gain will be the same as given by

$$10 \cdot 100 = 1000 \quad (9-18)$$

DESCRIPTION OF DATA FROM TEST NO. 1000

Notes 1

$$\text{Volume of Core} = \pi(1.04)^2(.42) = 1.40 \text{ cu}$$

$$\text{Mass Gases Gd by Core} = 1.33 \text{ g. } (16)(.7) \text{ (5)(2000-10)} = 426 \text{ mil.}$$

$$\text{Volume of Solid} = \pi(1.04)^2(.42) = .209 \text{ cu}$$

$$\text{Height of Solid} = 1.40(.209) = 2.87 \text{ gm}$$

$$\text{Mass Per Unit Volume of Gases in the Plastic Film} = 111 \text{ mil/cu}$$

$$\text{Mass Per Unit Volume of Gases From 1 to 10 sec} = 122 \text{ mil/cu}$$

$$\text{Mass Per Unit Volume of Gases in Plastic Film,} = 111 \text{ mil/cu} \\ 100 \text{ mil/gm}$$

Notes 2

$$\text{Volume of Core} = \pi(1.04)^2(.7) = 15.4 \text{ cu}$$

$$\text{Mass Gases Gd by Core} = 1795 \text{ mil}$$

$$\text{Mass Per Unit Volume of Gases in the Plastic Film} = 122 \text{ mil/cu}$$

$$\text{Mass Per Unit Height of Gases in Plastic Film} = 602 \text{ mil/cu} \\ 111 \text{ mil/gm}$$

This results in a comparison of ascending equal gasometer and cell volumes in Notes 11 shows there is 20 times gasometer than cell volume in Note 1. It should be noted that on the basis of core volume, the amount of mass given off is essentially the same (122 and 100 mil/cu).

APPENDIX B

DETAILS OF SIMULATION MODEL III

SIMULATION OF CONDUCTION HEAT TRANSFER IN A HOMOGENEOUS MEDIUM

In order to test the accuracy of the finite-difference approximation to the partial differential equations describing heat conduction in a composite system, the computer program was used to simulate a system for which the analytical solution was known.

The model consisted of a homogeneous sphere having an initial temperature equal to 200°K everywhere except at the surface where the temperature was elevated 40°K above 200°K . The analytical solution for this model is presented by Carslaw and Jaeger [12].

The results for both the approximate and exact solutions are shown in Figure 4-1.

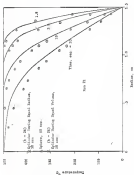


Figure 6-1. Isothermal Benzene Droplet Boiling for the Boiling of a Benzene Sphere

TABLE 6-1

SOME DATA IN CALCULATION OF CRITICAL THERMAL LAYER

This computer simultaneously solves 17 ordinary differential equations

Variable	Initial	Boundary	Elemental Step	Final Condition
Time	1.00	0.00	0.00001	0.000
Thermal Flux	1.00	0.000	0.0000	0.000
Thermal Flux	1.00	0.000	0.0000	0.000
Temperature	1.00	1.00	0.0000	0.000
Concentration	1.00	1.00	0.0000	0.000
Mass	1.00	0.00	0.000	0.000
Radius	1.00	1.00	0.100	0.000

Δt is represented by

$$\Delta t = (1.00 - 0.00) \cdot 10^{-10} / 0.00001 \quad \text{for } 1.0 \times 10^{-5}$$

and

$$\Delta t = (1.00 - 0.00) \cdot 10^{-10} / 0.00001 \cdot 0.00001 = 0.00001 \cdot 10^{-10}$$

for 1.0×10^{-5}

The calculated portion of the wire has a radius of 1.00 cm.

TABLE D-6

SUMMARY OF TESTS

<u>Row No.</u>	<u>Description</u>	<u>Results</u>
11	Derivative test (approx $p = 0.04, 0.05$)	Shown in Figure 1
12	Standard OLS (pseudo O(Heuristic)OLS-estimator)	Tabulated in Table 3 Shown in Figure 17
13	25 grid points	
14	50 grid points	
15	25 grid points, sub 4	
16	40 grid points	
17	all-Heuristic	Tabulated in Table 3 Shown in Figure 18
18	all-estimator	Tabulated in Table 3 Shown in Figure 18
19	subscore-Heuristic	Tabulated in Table 3 Shown in Figure 18
20	Minimization	Tabulated in Table 3 Shown in Figure 18
21	all-Heuristic $k = 0.0001$	Tabulated in Table 3 Shown in Figures 17 and 18
22	all-estimator $k = 0.0001$	Tabulated in Table 3 Shown in Figures 17 and 18
23	all-estimator $k = 0.0001, p = 11$	Tabulated in Table 3 Shown in Figure 17
24	all-estimator $k = 0.0001, p = 120$	Tabulated in Table 3 Shown in Figure 17

Table 6d (Continued)

Int. No.	Description	Results
11	all-unknown $k = 0.0001, \rho = 0.01$	tabulated in Table 5 shown in Figure 17
14	bottom of river = 1.00	tabulated in Table 5 shown in Figure 14
17	bottom of river = 1.00	tabulated in Table 5 shown in Figure 14
24	in back of reservoir	tabulated in Table 5 shown in Figure 14
25	$20 = 12$ (back of reservoir with circular head projection)	tabulated in Table 5 shown in Figure 14
40	flat rich (superior iron = 40%)	shown in Figure 16
42	flat rich (superior iron = 40%)	shown in Figure 16
43	$\rho_{10}^2/\rho_{20} = 32$	tabulated in Table 5 shown in Figure 16
44	$\rho_{10}^2/\rho_{20} = 32$	tabulated in Table 5 shown in Figure 16
44	$\rho_{10}^2/\rho_{20} = 32, \quad \frac{\rho_1}{\rho_2} = 32$ all-unknown	tabulated in Table 5 shown in Figure 16
45	superior waste (reservoir 0.8 for 40%)	tabulated in Table 5 shown in Figure 17
46	superior waste (reservoir 0.8 for 40%)	tabulated in Table 5 shown in Figure 17
47	reservoir ($\rho_{10}^2/\rho_{20} = 40$) waste (reservoir 0.8 for 40%)	tabulated in Table 5 shown in Figure 17
48	reservoir ($\rho_{10}^2/\rho_{20} = 40$) waste (reservoir 0.8 for 40%)	tabulated in Table 5 shown in Figure 17
49	1-back history (reservoir)	tabulated in Table 5 shown in Figure 17

**MATHEMATICAL EVALUATION OF THE SIMILARITY BETWEEN THE
FINITE DIFFERENCE APPROXIMATION AND THE APPROXIMATION
BASED ON WELL-KNOWN (JUMPED) ELEMENTS**

The equation which describes the steady-state heat transfer by conduction in a homogeneous body in one-dimensional Cartesian coordinates is given by

$$\frac{d^2T}{dx^2} = 0 \quad (6-1)$$

where $x = h(\eta)_j$.

The three-point central difference approximation of this partial derivative is given by

$$\frac{d^2T}{dx^2} = \frac{T_{j+1} - 2T_j + T_{j-1}}{(h\eta)^2} \quad (6-2)$$

Inserting equation (6-2) into the above

$$\frac{dT_j}{dx} = \frac{h}{(h\eta)^2} \left[T_{j+1} - 2T_j + T_{j-1} \right] \quad (6-3)$$

The heat transfer may be assumed to occur by transfer from one solid element to an adjacent one having the thermal resistance located at the interface as shown in the following diagram:



A hard nucleus in element j gives the following relation

$$2\mu U_{j-1} = T_j + \mu U_j = \mu U_j + T_{j+1} = \mu U_j \frac{dT_j}{dt} \quad (4-4)$$

and this equation can be rewritten in the following form

$$\frac{dT_j}{dt} = -\frac{1}{Q_{\text{eff}}^j} [T_{j+1} + T_j + T_{j-1}] \quad (4-5)$$

where $\beta = \frac{Q_{\text{eff}}^j}{T_j^2}$

If equations 2D-2 and 2D-3 are compared, it is seen that 2D is related to the relation $H = kT$ for the two equations are identical.

In the case of spherical distributions, the 2D-like difference form of the hard nucleus equation is given by

$$\frac{dT_j}{dt} = -\frac{1}{Q_{\text{eff}}^j} \frac{T_j U_j + T_{j+1} + T_{j-1}}{2} = -\frac{1}{Q_{\text{eff}}^j} \frac{T_{j+1} + T_{j-1}}{2} \quad (4-6)$$

If $H = \mu kT$, equation (4-6) reduces to

$$\frac{dT_j}{dt} = -\frac{1}{Q_{\text{eff}}^j} [(1+\mu)T_{j+1} + T_j + (1-\mu)T_{j-1}] \quad (4-7)$$

The mCD-related (largest mechanism) approximation takes the following form:



$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{H}_{j+1}^2}{\partial T_{j+1}} \frac{\partial T_{j+1}}{\partial T_j} = \mathcal{H}_j^2 = \frac{\partial \mathcal{H}_j^2}{\partial T_j} \frac{\partial T_j}{\partial T_{j+1}} = \mathcal{H}_{j+1}^2 = \rho C_p \frac{\partial \mathcal{H}_j^2}{\partial T_j} \frac{\partial T_j}{\partial T_{j+1}} \quad (20-8)$$

It should be noted that the expression for the volume of the element is a good approximation only for small values of Δt .

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{H}_j}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{H}_j}{\partial T_j} \left[\mathcal{H}_{j+1}^2 - \mathcal{H}_j^2 + \mathcal{H}_j^2 - \mathcal{H}_{j-1}^2 \right] \quad (20-9)$$

Therefore, equations (20-7) and (20-8) are very similar, and it should be obvious that they approach the same limit as the number of grid points is increased, i.e., as the volume of the element approaches zero. It should also be noted, however, that for small values of j the difference between the two equations may be significant. This is a consequence of the form of the particle differential equations in spherical coordinates.

APPENDIX B

DETAILS OF THE SENSOR PROGRAM

TABLE B-1

ABBREVIATIONS OF SENSORS AND DATA

ALPHA	α , Thermal Efficiency
TEMP	Average Temperature of Element
CH	Auxiliary Channel
CH	Auxiliary Channel
CH	Overrange of Differential Junctions
CH	Heat Capacity
CH	Heat Generation of the Core
CH	Heat Generation of Reactor Surrounding the Core
CH	Flowing Point Value of α , β , etc.
CH	Change in Heat Generation of Core
CH	Reactor Indicating Whether a Heat Generation Starts in the Installation
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 1
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 2
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 3
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 4
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 5
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 6
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 7
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 8
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 9
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 10
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 11
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 12
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 13
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 14
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 15
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 16
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 17
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 18
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 19
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 20
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 21
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 22
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 23
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 24
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 25
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 26
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 27
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 28
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 29
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 30
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 31
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 32
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 33
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 34
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 35
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 36
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 37
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 38
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 39
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 40
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 41
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 42
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 43
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 44
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 45
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 46
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 47
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 48
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 49
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 50
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 51
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 52
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 53
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 54
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 55
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 56
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 57
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 58
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 59
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 60
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CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 64
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CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 66
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 67
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CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 69
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 70
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 71
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 72
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 73
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 74
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 75
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 76
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 77
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 78
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 79
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 80
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 81
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 82
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 83
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 84
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 85
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 86
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 87
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 88
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 89
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 90
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 91
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 92
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 93
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 94
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 95
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 96
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 97
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 98
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 99
CH	Highest Grid Point Number of Element 100

TABLE B-1 (Continued)

B	Number of Grid Points in Each Element
BRD	Material Behavior in Each Element
CDZ	Element Number Which Defines a Heat Generation
CRD1	Temperature of Region in Element 1
CRD2	Temperature of Region in Element 2
CRD3	Temperature of Region in Element 3
CRD4	Temperature of Region in Element 4
CRD5	Temperature of Region in Element 5
CRD6	Temperature of Region in Element 6
CRD7	Temperature of Region in Element 7
CRD8	Temperature of Region in Element 8
CRD9	Temperature of Region in Element 9
CRD10	Temperature of Region in Element 10
CRD11	Temperature of Region in Element 11
CRD12	Temperature of Region in Element 12
CRD13	Temperature of Region in Element 13
CRD14	Temperature of Region in Element 14
CRD15	Temperature of Region in Element 15
CRD16	Temperature of Region in Element 16
CRD17	Temperature of Region in Element 17
CRD18	Temperature of Region in Element 18
CRD19	Temperature of Region in Element 19
CRD20	Temperature of Region in Element 20
CRD21	Temperature of Region in Element 21
CRD22	Temperature of Region in Element 22
CRD23	Temperature of Region in Element 23
CRD24	Temperature of Region in Element 24
CRD25	Temperature of Region in Element 25
CRD26	Temperature of Region in Element 26
CRD27	Temperature of Region in Element 27
CRD28	Temperature of Region in Element 28
CRD29	Temperature of Region in Element 29
CRD30	Temperature of Region in Element 30
CRD31	Temperature of Region in Element 31
CRD32	Temperature of Region in Element 32
CRD33	Temperature of Region in Element 33
CRD34	Temperature of Region in Element 34
CRD35	Temperature of Region in Element 35
CRD36	Temperature of Region in Element 36
CRD37	Temperature of Region in Element 37
CRD38	Temperature of Region in Element 38
CRD39	Temperature of Region in Element 39
CRD40	Temperature of Region in Element 40
CRD41	Temperature of Region in Element 41
CRD42	Temperature of Region in Element 42
CRD43	Temperature of Region in Element 43
CRD44	Temperature of Region in Element 44
CRD45	Temperature of Region in Element 45
CRD46	Temperature of Region in Element 46
CRD47	Temperature of Region in Element 47
CRD48	Temperature of Region in Element 48
CRD49	Temperature of Region in Element 49
CRD50	Temperature of Region in Element 50
CRD51	Temperature of Region in Element 51
CRD52	Temperature of Region in Element 52
CRD53	Temperature of Region in Element 53
CRD54	Temperature of Region in Element 54
CRD55	Temperature of Region in Element 55
CRD56	Temperature of Region in Element 56
CRD57	Temperature of Region in Element 57
CRD58	Temperature of Region in Element 58
CRD59	Temperature of Region in Element 59
CRD60	Temperature of Region in Element 60
CRD61	Temperature of Region in Element 61
CRD62	Temperature of Region in Element 62
CRD63	Temperature of Region in Element 63
CRD64	Temperature of Region in Element 64
CRD65	Temperature of Region in Element 65
CRD66	Temperature of Region in Element 66
CRD67	Temperature of Region in Element 67
CRD68	Temperature of Region in Element 68
CRD69	Temperature of Region in Element 69
CRD70	Temperature of Region in Element 70
CRD71	Temperature of Region in Element 71
CRD72	Temperature of Region in Element 72
CRD73	Temperature of Region in Element 73
CRD74	Temperature of Region in Element 74
CRD75	Temperature of Region in Element 75
CRD76	Temperature of Region in Element 76
CRD77	Temperature of Region in Element 77
CRD78	Temperature of Region in Element 78
CRD79	Temperature of Region in Element 79
CRD80	Temperature of Region in Element 80
CRD81	Temperature of Region in Element 81
CRD82	Temperature of Region in Element 82
CRD83	Temperature of Region in Element 83
CRD84	Temperature of Region in Element 84
CRD85	Temperature of Region in Element 85
CRD86	Temperature of Region in Element 86
CRD87	Temperature of Region in Element 87
CRD88	Temperature of Region in Element 88
CRD89	Temperature of Region in Element 89
CRD90	Temperature of Region in Element 90
CRD91	Temperature of Region in Element 91
CRD92	Temperature of Region in Element 92
CRD93	Temperature of Region in Element 93
CRD94	Temperature of Region in Element 94
CRD95	Temperature of Region in Element 95
CRD96	Temperature of Region in Element 96
CRD97	Temperature of Region in Element 97
CRD98	Temperature of Region in Element 98
CRD99	Temperature of Region in Element 99
CRD100	Temperature of Region in Element 100

TABLE B-1. (Continued)

82282	Scrap Flaps of Intra-Cell Area Generated Tests
826	Box of Gold Polys. Degradation Results on Flamed

Figure (a). Flow Diagram for the JERS Program



Q 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12

2000 Data Code

Code 1	12 COLUMNS OF SURVEILLANCE IDENTIFICATION:
Code 2	1000, 2000, 3000, 4000, 5000, 6000, 7000, 8000, 9000
Code 3	1000, 2000, 3000, 4000, 5000, 6000, 7000, 8000, 9000
Code 4	1000, 2000, 3000, 4000, 5000, 6000, 7000, 8000, 9000

349	CAL.	BRIDGE	1.1
350	CAL.	STATE	1.1, 1.11
351	CAL.	CONCRETE	
352	CAL.	BRIDGE	
353	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
354	CAL.	STATE	1.1, 1.11
355	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
356	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
357	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
358	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
359	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
360	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
361	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
362	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
363	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
364	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
365	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
366	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
367	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
368	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
369	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
370	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
371	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
372	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
373	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
374	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
375	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
376	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
377	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
378	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
379	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
380	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
381	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
382	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
383	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
384	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
385	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
386	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
387	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
388	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
389	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
390	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
391	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
392	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
393	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
394	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
395	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
396	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
397	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
398	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
399	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11
400	CH.	1.1, 1.11	1.1, 1.11

166	13	140	
167	141	14012	111
168	13	150	
169	141	14014	1-1
170	13	160	
171	141	14015	121
172	13	170	
173	141	14016	1-1
174	13	180	
175	141	14017	111
176	13	190	
177	141	14018	111
178	13	200	
179	141	14019	111
180	13	210	
181	141	14020	111
182	13	220	
183	141	14021	111
184	13	230	
185	141	14022	111
186	13	240	
187	141	14023	111
188	13	250	
189	141	14024	111
190	13	260	
191	141	14025	111
192	13	270	
193	141	14026	111
194	13	280	
195	141	14027	111
196	13	290	
197	141	14028	111
198	13	300	
199	141	14029	111
200	13	310	
201	141	14030	111
202	13	320	
203	141	14031	111
204	13	330	
205	141	14032	111
206	13	340	
207	141	14033	111
208	13	350	
209	141	14034	111
210	13	360	
211	141	14035	111
212	13	370	
213	141	14036	111
214	13	380	
215	141	14037	111
216	13	390	
217	141	14038	111
218	13	400	
219	141	14039	111
220	13	410	
221	141	14040	111
222	13	420	
223	141	14041	111
224	13	430	
225	141	14042	111
226	13	440	
227	141	14043	111
228	13	450	
229	141	14044	111
230	13	460	
231	141	14045	111
232	13	470	
233	141	14046	111
234	13	480	
235	141	14047	111
236	13	490	
237	141	14048	111
238	13	500	
239	141	14049	111
240	13	510	
241	141	14050	111
242	13	520	
243	141	14051	111
244	13	530	
245	141	14052	111
246	13	540	
247	141	14053	111
248	13	550	
249	141	14054	111
250	13	560	
251	141	14055	111
252	13	570	
253	141	14056	111
254	13	580	
255	141	14057	111
256	13	590	
257	141	14058	111
258	13	600	
259	141	14059	111
260	13	610	
261	141	14060	111
262	13	620	
263	141	14061	111
264	13	630	
265	141	14062	111
266	13	640	
267	141	14063	111
268	13	650	
269	141	14064	111
270	13	660	
271	141	14065	111
272	13	670	
273	141	14066	111
274	13	680	
275	141	14067	111
276	13	690	
277	141	14068	111
278	13	700	
279	141	14069	111
280	13	710	
281	141	14070	111
282	13	720	
283	141	14071	111
284	13	730	
285	141	14072	111
286	13	740	
287	141	14073	111
288	13	750	
289	141	14074	111
290	13	760	
291	141	14075	111
292	13	770	
293	141	14076	111
294	13	780	
295	141	14077	111
296	13	790	
297	141	14078	111
298	13	800	
299	141	14079	111
300	13	810	
301	141	14080	111
302	13	820	
303	141	14081	111
304	13	830	
305	141	14082	111
306	13	840	
307	141	14083	111
308	13	850	
309	141	14084	111
310	13	860	
311	141	14085	111
312	13	870	
313	141	14086	111
314	13	880	
315	141	14087	111
316	13	890	
317	141	14088	111
318	13	900	
319	141	14089	111
320	13	910	
321	141	14090	111
322	13	920	
323	141	14091	111
324	13	930	
325	141	14092	111
326	13	940	
327	141	14093	111
328	13	950	
329	141	14094	111
330	13	960	
331	141	14095	111
332	13	970	
333	141	14096	111
334	13	980	
335	141	14097	111
336	13	990	
337	141	14098	111
338	13	1000	
339	141	14099	111
340	13	1010	
341	141	14100	111
342	13	1020	
343	141	14101	111
344	13	1030	
345	141	14102	111
346	13	1040	
347	141	14103	111
348	13	1050	
349	141	14104	111
350	13	1060	
351	141	14105	111
352	13	1070	
353	141	14106	111
354	13	1080	
355	141	14107	111
356	13	1090	
357	141	14108	111
358	13	1100	
359	141	14109	111
360	13	1110	
361	141	14110	111
362	13	1120	
363	141	14111	111
364	13	1130	
365	141	14112	111
366	13	1140	
367	141	14113	111
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369	141	14114	111
370	13	1160	
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373	141	14116	111
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375	141	14117	111
376	13	1190	
377	141	14118	111
378	13	1200	
379	141	14119	111
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384	13	1230	
385	141	14122	111
386	13	1240	
387	141	14123	111
388	13	1250	
389	141	14124	111
390	13	1260	
391	141	14125	111
392	13	1270	
393	141	14126	111
394	13	1280	
395	141	14127	111
396	13	1290	
397	141	14128	111
398	13	1300	
399	141	14129	111
400	13	1310	
401	141	14130	111
402	13	1320	
403	141	14131	111
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405	141	14132	111
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407	141	14133	111
408	13	1350	
409	141	14134	111
410	13	1360	
411	141	14135	111
412	13	1370	
413	141	14136	111
414	13	1380	
415	141	14137	111
416	13	1390	
417	141	14138	111
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436	13	1490	
437	141	14148	111
438	13	1500	
439	141	14149	111
440	13	1510	
441	141	14150	111
442	13	1520	
443	141	14151	111
444	13	1530	
445	141	14152	111
446	13	1540	
447	141	14153	111
448	13	1550	
449	141	14154	111
450	13	1560	
451	141	14155	111
452	13	1570	
453	141	14156	111
454	13	1580	
455	141	14157	111
456	13	1590	
457	141	14158	111
458	13	1600	
459	141	14159	111
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461	141	14160	111
462	13	1620	
463	141	14161	111
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465	141	14162	111
466	13	1640	
467	141	14163	111
468	13	1650	
469	141	14164	111
470	13	1660	
471	141	14165	111
472	13	1670	
473	141	14166	111
474	13	1680	
475	141	14167	111
476	13	1690	
477	141	14168	111
478	13	1700	
479	141	14169	111
480	13	1710	
481	141	14170	111
482	13	1720	
483	141	14171	111
484	13	1730	
485	141	14172	111
486	13	1740	
487	141	14173	111
488	13	1750	
489	141	14174	111
490	13	1760	
491	141	14175	111
492	13	1770	
493	141	14176	111
494	13	1780	
495	141	14177	111
496	13	1790	
497	141	14178	111
498	13	1800	
499	141	14179	111
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501	14		

[illegible]

[illegible]

1. The first step is to identify the problem.
 2. The second step is to define the problem.
 3. The third step is to analyze the problem.
 4. The fourth step is to develop a solution.
 5. The fifth step is to implement the solution.
 6. The sixth step is to evaluate the solution.

- [illegible]

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1. *What is the purpose of the study?*
 2. *What are the research objectives?*
 3. *What is the research design?*
 4. *What are the variables?*
 5. *What is the sample size?*
 6. *What are the data sources?*
 7. *What are the data collection methods?*
 8. *What are the data analysis methods?*
 9. *What are the results?*
 10. *What are the conclusions?*

[illegible]

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

William Edwin Hedger was born July 7, 1886, at Havana, Cuba. In 1908, 1909, he was graduated from Colegio de Ingen. Havana, Cuba. He received the Bachelor of Science in September, 1910, he received the degree of Bachelor of Science in Chemical Engineering with Honors in June, 1910, and the degree of Master of Science in Engineering in December, 1911. Since that time he has been employed at the University by the Department of Chemical Engineering as a full-time engineering assistant.

He is married to the former Josephine Jean Hunt; they have three children, one Martin, Martin Hunt and Marie Adelaide. He is a member of Sigma Xi, Eta Beta Phi, Phi Kappa Phi, and Sigma Xi.

This dissertation was prepared under the direction of the
Council of the Graduate's Supervisory Committee, and has been approved
by all members of that committee. It was submitted to the Dean of the
College of Engineering and to the Graduate Council, and was approved
as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of
Science.

April 24, 1940

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